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INCLUDED ARE REPORTS AND REPORT SUMMARIES ON BILINGUALISM IN TERMS OF (1) THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND COUNSELING VIEWPOINTS, (2) PROGRAMS, METHODS, AND MATERIALS, AND (3) RECRUITMENT AND PREPARATION OF BILINGUAL TEACHERS. THE FIRST REPORT DEFINES BILINGUAL SCHOOLING, PRESENTS FIVE VARIABLES AFFECTING SUCH SCHOOLING, ANALYZES SPECIFIC SCHOOL SITUATIONS, AND RECOMMENDS SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING PRINCIPLES. THE ADVANTAGES OF BILINGUALISM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE SOUTHWEST COUNCIL PROGRAM ARE DISCUSSED. THE SECOND REPORT CONTAINS A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON BILINGUALISM, OBJECTIVES FOR A BILINGUAL PROGRAM, A PRELIMINARY LIST OF MATERIALS, AND TENTATIVE GUIDELINES FOR A BILINGUAL CURRICULUM. THE THIRD REPORT COVERS THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE SKILLS FOR BILINGUALS, INTERCULTURAL PROBLEMS AND THE TEACHER OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE, TESL GUIDELINES FOR TRAINING STUDENT TEACHERS, RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING OF BILINGUAL TEACHERS IN MIAMI, AND PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED. (AF)

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SOUTHWEST COUNCIL of FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

FL 000 719

REPORTS

Bilingualism

CHARLES STUBING — *Editor*

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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November 4-5, 1966

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Preface

The reports contained in this volume appear in order of presentation to be followed at the Conference. The views and conclusions expressed in them are those of the working committees. Participants and committee members will discuss the issues in response to questions and comments solicited from the audience.

ERRATA

Page 26, Second paragraph, Line 7: Should read "one moves progressively from three-fourths Spanish--one-fourth English to the reverse proportion."

Page 47, First paragraph, Line 12: Should read "Given the language poverty of these children, both experiential as well as conceptual, it is the duty of the teacher..."

Report I

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Bilingualism: From the Viewpoint of The Administrator and Counselor

SUMMARY OF REPORT

This report has two major divisions. The first division defines bilingual schooling, presents five variables affecting such schooling, analyzes the situation in specific school situations, as in Laredo and Miami, and discusses the nature of learning today. It then proceeds to a series of recommendations applicable to language teaching.

The second major division treats primarily the advantages of bilingualism and of the prime objectives of the Southwest Council program.

Returning to the first part of the report, we find bilingual schooling best defined as the "teaching of all or a few subjects (over and above English and Spanish themselves) through both tongues." There is of course, a sharp distinction between this and the mere teaching of a second language as an isolated subject.

Five variables to be considered are: (1) whether the language added to the monolingual English system is the mother tongue or a second language, (2) the time to be devoted to each language, (3) whether the schooling is "one-way" (as in Carbondale, Ill., where there are only Anglo-American students or "two-way" (as in Laredo), with both cultural groups and the addition of the second mother tongue, (4) the question of mixing or keeping the two different cultural groups segregated or separated, (5) whether or not to have different teachers for the two different languages.

There follows a description of the Laredo bilingual schools. Problems encountered and surmounted were the obtention of authorization from state authorities, the not-too-valid objections of some parents, the preparation of teachers, the choice of materials. The result has been the creation of an effective, "two-way," mixed bilingual school system giving equal time to Spanish and English. Students of Spanish language are happier, parents are becoming enthusiastic, work in different subjects is progressing faster, and the teachers themselves are inspired.

The Coral Way bilingual school in Miami is also "two-way," with about equal time for the two languages. However from grade one through grade three, there is considerably less mixing of the two cultural groups (as opposed to the Laredo situation). From grade level four up, one has arrived progressively to more mixing (represented in excellent charts), and there is in prospect a 1966-1967 project for mixing all students completely and thoroughly in grade six. One of the unique features of the Coral Way system is having *mixed* groups first function in *English alone* and then in *Spanish alone* for another three weeks. Another important step has been administration of the Otis Alpha mental maturity and Stanford achievement tests, showing that the students are now comparing very favorably with the national percentile. Performance in language itself has been most satisfactory.

Next, the report goes into necessary considerations in second

language learning in the modern era. In one's mother tongue, the acquisition of what is known in contemporary linguistics as " deep grammar" is an achievement that comes about unconsciously — and the first grader's progress will be henceforth one in the realm of "words." To teach the "deep grammar" (*tournures,* idioms, and structure that at times defy analysis, discussions, or concern with cardinal rules and that are acquired without awareness by the native child) to the learner of a second language, to avoid over-attention to "prestigious usage" and to the "words" fallacy, one should heed the following recommendations: (1) foster unconscious acquisition of the new tongue through pleasurable learning experiences, (2) use structured drills, (3) use the language itself as the only medium of instruction and make the structured drills fit into natural situations, (4) avoid "fuss" over the slight differences of various Western Hemisphere Spanish dialects.

Part two begins with statements advancing the obvious advantages of bilingualism and stating that the real problem in bilingualism stems largely from *educational and administrative attitude and policy* towards it. A following strong point is that we can very clearly best learn through our *mother tongue* (a consideration, incidentally, we must bear in mind in helping our Spanish American students).

Bilingual *schooling* is profitable because it makes for superior educational achievement (as proved, e. g., in the Lambert-Peal work on the relationship of bilingualism and intelligence).

A particularly stressed point is the adoption of a *"middle road"* in this whole program: no cutting of ties, be they Anglo-Saxon or Spanish, but the authentic realization of a literate, adjusted *biculturalism*. The very objective of the program of the Southwest Council is to get away from the old assimilation-by-alienation methods employed by the Anglo-Americans against Hispano-Americans and keeping the latter in a state of socio-economic degradation.

There follows the presentation of obvious distinctions between teaching a foreign language as just another subject and the incorporation of a second mother tongue in a school system and entire curriculum.

Finally, the report again dispells the idea of the uninformed that Spanish in the Southwest is "substandard" or not "real Spanish."

The supporting bibliography is included in a helpful set of explanatory notes; and the appendix is of real interest; for it describes in detail a number of bilingual projects in various schools about the nation. One such, for example, is the teaching in Spanish of general geography and Latin American literature to Spanish-speaking seniors in Albuquerque.

Bilingualism: From The Viewpoint of The Administrator and Counselor

PART ONE: BASIC POINTS AND SUPPORTING REFERENCES FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

I DEFINITION OF BILINGUAL SCHOOLING

"Bilingual schooling" means the use of two languages (in this essay, English and Spanish) as mediums of instruction for a child or a group of children in any part or all of the school curriculum except study of the languages themselves. For example, teaching all or a few subjects (except English and Spanish) through both tongues, or teaching some through English and some through Spanish would be bilingual schooling. Teaching one of the languages simply as a bridge to the other, or teaching one as a subject only, is not bilingual schooling.

II ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES

For convenience in discussing bilingual schools, there are five organizational variables that should be kept in mind.

a) The first variable is whether the language added to the present monolingual English system is the mother tongue or a second language. In terms of the dynamics of the school, this is the most important variable. (Spanish added in the University School, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, is a second language, because the mother tongue of all the children is English. Spanish added in the "Spanish for Spanish Speakers" program in Dade County, Florida, is the mother tongue. See Point V in the section for counselors.) [1]

b) The second variable is the extent to which equal time and treatment are given to the two languages. (See Point III in in the section for counselors.)

c) The third variable is whether the bilingual schooling is *one-way* or *two-way*. (The Spanish-S program in Miami is one-way, since it involves only Spanish speakers; the Carbondale school is one-way, with only Anglo pupils. (The United Consolidated Independent School District, near Laredo, Texas, has two-way bilingual schooling, adding Spanish as the mother tongue for Spanish speakers and adding it as a second language for the Anglo pupils.)

d) The fourth variable is whether or not, in a two-way school, the two language groups are kept separate or are mixed together in the classrooms. (The Laredo schools are mixed; the Coral Way and Central Beach schools in Miami are segregated in most classes in grades 1-3, mixed increasingly thereafter.) This variable applies only to the two-way school. Segregated classes are preferred by those who believe that the child's initiation to his second language — Spanish for the Anglos, English for the Spanish-speaking — is difficult enough to warrant special attention which cannot be given in mixed classes. To this belief is added the fear that six-

year-old second language beginners in mixed classes will be dominated, silenced, and their progress slowed by the native speakers.

Mixed classes are preferred by those who counter the above arguments with the fact that most bilingual schools have always had mixed classes, the supposition that children will learn as much from each other as from the teacher, and the belief that segregated classes are bad for other reasons not connected with language.

e) The fifth important organizational variable is whether or not the one-teacher, one-language principle is observed. It is generally agreed that in the interest of keeping the languages separate each should have its own times, its places and its sources.[2] It is considered best of all that the child learn each language from a different person or persons. Next best is that if one teacher must teach both languages they be strictly separated in time.

III The United Consolidated bilingual schools — Laredo, Texas

The three United Consolidated bilingual elementary schools are located where two different cultures meet and mix continuously — in a district where 53 per cent of the pupils have Spanish surnames. In one of the three schools about 94 percent have Spanish surnames. The bilingual program was started in September of 1964 in the first grades; the second grades were added in 1965, and the program is to continue at least through grade six.

The three schools — Nye, Johnson, and Cactus — are two-way, mixed schools, giving equal time and treatment to each language. The following ten points are descriptive of the schools and the steps leading to their conversion to bilingualism.

1. When the chief school administrator saw too many over-age children in each grade and noted the high incidence of Spanish surnames among those children, he sensed that something was wrong with the school program. This is the necessary first step toward a bilingual school.

2. The next step (in Texas) was to get clearance from the state department of education and the state's attorney general, because of legislation which makes English the sole medium of instruction. Clearance was readily obtained.

3. Next, the proposed bilingual program was fully described and explained to the district board of school trustees, to the people of the community, to the school staff, and to the students. An authority from outside the district was asked to participate in these meetings. Several special meetings were called.

4. There were two kinds of objections to the bilingual program: some Anglo parents feared their children would get less than a full share of productive school work; and some Hispano parents feared the program would hinder their efforts to identify with middle class Anglo culture.

5. The children were prepared by being told that they would spend part of their school day speaking in English and part in Spanish, and were made to feel strongly that each had a language he could be proud of and one the rest wanted to learn. Two years prior to this time the board of school trustees had established a policy encouraging all pupils to become bilingual.
6. The teachers in the program were required to attend a preliminary series of workshop sessions to discuss every detail of the program and work on lesson materials. In the first grades, bilingual teachers — highly literate in both languages — teach both through Spanish and through English. In the second grades, one teacher does the Spanish work, and another does the work in English.
7. Bilingual schools are somewhat more expensive than monolingual schools because of the added costs for inservice training sessions, consultants' services, and the extra teaching materials in the added language. The extra investment will pay extra dividends.
8. The Spanish language teaching materials are mostly from Mexico. They required some adaptation and modification to make them correspond in sequence to the materials published in English.
9. In the United Consolidated Schools Spanish is not taught as a mere bridge to English. The two languages get equal time and equal treatment. The children are mixed in the classrooms without regard to intelligence quotients, racial origin, or place of residence. From the first day they spend half of their time in English-speaking activities and half in Spanish-speaking activities. There are plenty of songs and games in each language. The two languages are used equally throughout the day, in each class period. Each language is used to reinforce and extend the learning accomplished through the other.
10. The United Consolidated District has not been able to finance the extra staff needed to evaluate the bilingual work objectively. Some subjective impressions gained from two years of experience are worth noting:
   a) The Spanish speaking children are definitely happier in school than ever before.
   b) Anglo parents and children are excited about the latter's new linguistic accomplishment.
   c) Classes progress much faster, since all children know at all times what is going on and what is expected of them.
   d) The teachers love bilingual work because of the pleasure the children get when every one of them can contribute and take part in the life experiences of the school.

IV THE CORAL WAY BILINGUAL SCHOOL — Miami, Florida *

Coral Way elementary has six grades, with normally four classes of each grade and about 720 pupils, half of them monolingual speakers of English, half Cuban children speakers of Spanish. Coral Way presents all subjects in grades 1-3 through the mother

* The description of Coral Way is adapted from an article on bilingual schools prepared by one member of the committee for a forthcoming issue of the *Journal of Social Issues*.

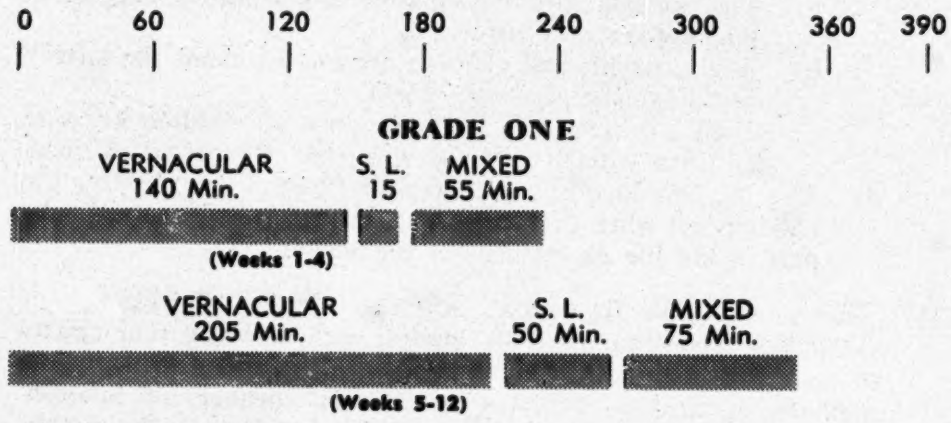
tongue for approximately half the day, and all are reinforced through the other tongue during the following half. These are segregated classes. For physical education, art, music, and supervised play the groups are mixed, and there is free interchange of both languages. In the fourth and fifth grades (the third year of operation of the school) it was found that the pupils' command of the second language was such that they could learn through it alone, without need of a duplicate class in the vernacular.

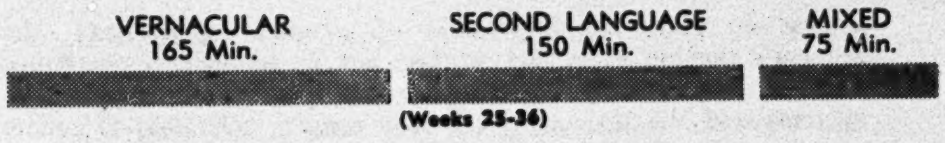
There are two sets of teachers, native English and native Spanish (four in all at each grade level) plus four bilingual teaching aides. The aides are responsible for the physical education, art, music and supervised play, and they give special help to slow learners and transfer pupils. They also make it possible for the regular teachers to have free time every day to keep the two halves of each child's program perfectly coordinated.

The bilingual program was initiated in grades 1-3 simultaneous'y, with the work in the second language gradually increased by stages until by approximately mid-year each child was getting half of his instruction through each of the languages. After the initial year there was staging in the first grade only. The two halves of each child's program are carefully coordinated, but each teacher is expected to work in her classroom as if there were no other language and the children's education depended on her alone. This means that the work in one language is not presented in terms of or with reference to the other language.

Coral Way provides the same curricular time allotments as in other Miami schools. Although the dual language reinforcing procedure gives maximum second language experience with minimum crowding of the curriculum, some time inevitably goes to the second language per se. This results in reducing the amount of extra-curricular activities during school hours.

MINUTES IN THE SCHOOL DAY





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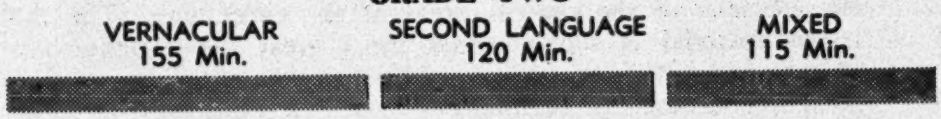
GRADE TWO



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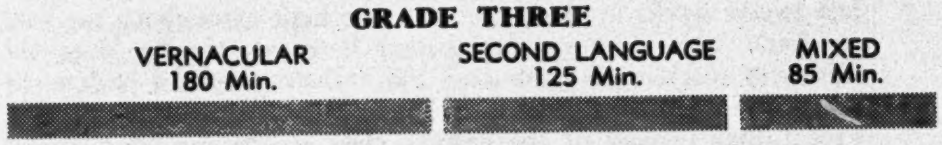


GRADE FOUR

GRADE FIVE

GRADE SIX

MIXED
PROJECTED FOR 1966 - 1967

Time Distribution Pattern — Coral Way Elementary School "Vernacular" and "second language" mean the use of these as mediums of instruction. "Mixed" in grades 1-3 means physical education, art, and music only. In grades 4-6 "mixed" also means combined classes of Anglos and Cubans spending 3 weeks of each grading period working through English only, and 3 weeks working through Spanish only, in all subjects.

The most crucial teaching problem is considered to be the proper initiation of pupils (in grades 1-3 the first year of the school and in grade one thereafter) to the second language. The same problem occurs with transfer pupils who enroll initially above grade one. The Coral Way solution has two special features: 1) close coordination of each day's second language experience with the preceding experience in the vernacular, and 2) careful structuring of the second language experience so that although the teacher-class

interaction gives the impression of complete spontaneity, the teacher's portion is in fact worked out in advance to introduce and review constantly a specified corpus from the form and order systems and the lexicon of the new tongue. Detailed linguistic sequences for English as a second language and Spanish as a second language were developed in advance in order to incorporate the concepts of the content areas of the curriculum. The oral lesson material is supplemented by a great many pictures of objects and activities. As an additional precaution to assure a good second language beginning without detracting from the other curricular areas, the school day is lengthened one hour during the last twelve weeks in grade one, and one hour throughout the year in grade two. The regular second language teacher does the initiatory teaching in grade one. For transfer pupils it is done by the aides. Transfer pupils sit with their grade-mates all day, except that instead of the regular class in the second language per se they receive semi-private intiatory instruction from the aides. This work, 30-45 minutes daily, may be required for only a few weeks or it may go on for an entire year.

There are several indications that the Coral Way bilingual school has been sucessful. At the fourth and fifth grade levels the pupils begin to have mixed classes in each language without reinforcement in the other, because the teachers believe that their command of the second language has become strong enough for them to learn through it alone. Pupils who entered Coral Way in the first grade in September 1963 were given the Otis Alpha test of mental maturity (to establish a level of expectation for each child) and the Stanford Achievement tests, at the end of their third school year. Their scores, compared with those of the entire third grade and with national norms for these tests, are shown on page 15.

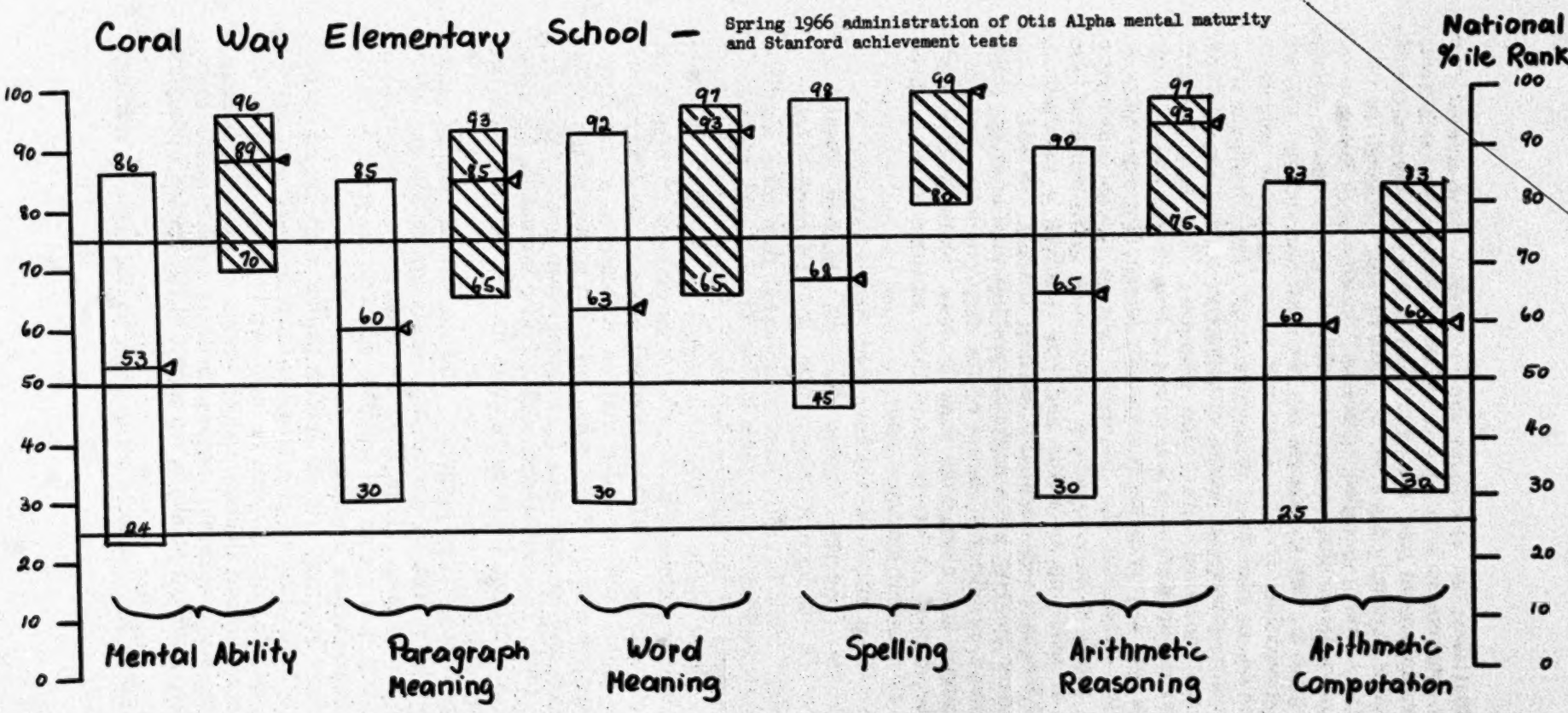
V Some Considerations Underlying Second Language Learning

Any bilingual schooling program will eventually include the use of standardized tests of pupil achievement. In addition to this, the administrator needs sufficient knowledge of how languages are learned, *especially a second language,* to guide him both in setting up the school and in judging its effectiveness in operation.

In the United States the second language is English if the child's mother or family tongue is Spanish. If the child's mother or family tongue is English, any other tongue could be the second one, but in this essay it is assumed to be Spanish. The difference between first and second language learning is crucially important, for all decisions about the choice of teachers, and their methods and teaching materials flow from this difference. The difference can best be discussed in terms of "grammar" and "words."

When children first enter school at age six they already know the grammar, the "deep grammar," of their native tongue.[3] They are "naive experts" who have unconsciously acquired command over all the basic patterns of the language (its highly complex, interrelated sytems of sound, form, and order) and have a vocabu-

Coral Way Elementary School — Spring 1966 administration of Otis Alpha mental maturity and Stanford achievement tests



Total third grade enrollment: 63 Anglos, 59 Cubans

38 Anglo third grades have had three full years in the bilingual program

The balance of the Anglos (25), and many of the 59 Cubans are late-comers or transfers. The Cubans are generally lower achievers than the Anglos, despite the fact that "fluency" in English is a prerequisite for taking these tests (all given in English). Expert observers have noted that the Anglo children acquire excellent pronunciation of Spanish, while the English of some of the Cuban children shows interference from Spanish. This is attributed to the fact that the former group hears nothing but native Spanish, while in the homes of the latter one hears a good deal of heavily accented English spoken by adult immigrants.

lary that may run as high as 24,000 words.[4] As a general rule native speakers, including native-speaker teachers, have no awareness whatsoever of this "deep grammar." Since teachers and pupils all possess it, deeply ingrained by life-long habit, it need not concern them. What is called "grammar" in schools is likely to be descriptive terminology taught to facilitate understanding points of usage, e. g., why one should say "between him and me" instead of "between him and I." Grammar in our grammar schools is focused on the niceties of prestigious usage. The "language arts" curriculum—prestigious usage, orthography, reading, and writing — is not concerned with "deep grammar." The language arts teachers are unaware of it and have not been taught how to teach it. Teaching deep grammar is essentially foreign language teaching. "Words" come into the discussion because people — including school people — have an almost unshakeable conviction that language is made up of words and that teaching — especially a second language —is essentially teaching words.[5] "Words," i. e., vocabulary building, are a negligible problem until after the child has gained considerable control of the deep grammar. Consider, for example, how much more than the mere "meanings of words" must be mastered before either of these sentences could be produced as a second language effort:

1. If I'd known it, I'd have told him.
2. De haberlo sabido, se lo hubiera dicho.
   (Of to have it known, him it I'd have told.)

"Meaning" itself is vastly more complicated than mere word-to-word correspondence, e. g., *perro* is *dog*. There is also "the meaning conveyed by the position, inflection, accent, intonation, and relationship of words."[6] The Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board cites an example of these other kinds of meaning: "Without thinking about it, he [the native-speaker child] will recognize that, in response to a statement, interrogatives such as *where*, *who*, and *what*, spoken with a rising intonation, call for repetition ("I'm going down town." "Where?" "Down town."); when spoken with a falling intonation, for more specific information ("I'm going down town." "Where?" "To the shopping district.")

Ignorance about "deep grammar," and the "words" fallacy cause no great harm if both teacher and pupils are middle or upper class native speakers. If the pupils are speakers of an unacceptable dialect or if they are second language learners, the result is likely to be unsatisfactory learning.

Teachers of language arts are trained to deal with the important but superficial problems of prestigious usage in speakers of standard or near-standard variants of their own language. What to do about non-standard dialects (which means a markedly different deep grammar) or second language learners (which means there is no deep grammar at all) is not a part of the teacher's preparation.

A few words and footnotes are in order on the topic of reading.

Two quotations, referring to how a child learns to read *in his native language* are pertinent. The first, from John Carroll, indicates the extent that reading is dependent on a command of language as speech:

> ". . . learning to read a language depends not only upon the ability to understand the spoken form of a language but also upon the ability to reconstruct the spoken forms of written messages . . . The activity of reading can, therefore, be analyzed into two processes: (a) on the basis of the written message, the construction or reconstruction of a spoken message or of some internal representation of it; and (b) the comprehension of messages so constructed.
>
> "The reconstruction of spoken messages from written messages depends upon the development of the speech repertory as a whole and particularly on the ability to recognize features of the spoken language system that correspond in some way with features of the writing system." [8]

The second quotation, from the Commission on English, deals with the question of time:

> "At least three or four years will be required to bring the child's reading proficiency to the level of his ability to speak and understand, and to make reading a means of enlarging his linguistic experience and competence. It will take still longer for him to write with reasonable competence." [9]

The quotations above refer to the *native*-speaker child entering elementary school to study through his own *native* tongue. If the statements are true, they are certainly no less true of the child who is learning through a second language.

The positive recommendations which flow from the above discussion are these:

1. There should be maximum reliance on the young child's capacity for natural, unconscious acquisition of second-language deep grammar when he is wholly engaged in situations where the new language is an unemphasized means to other, pleasant, significant ends and there is no involvement of the other language.
2. Since six years of age is already somewhat late and because there will inevitably be slow learners and transfer pupils, teachers of the second language must be qualified to help the child quickly and systematically to acquire command of the deep grammar of the new tongue. This calls for a structured presentation.
3. Since the attention of the young child language learner cannot profitably be fixed on language itself, but should be fixed beyond language on his involvement in meaningful situations, it follows that the teacher's structured presentation, insofar as possible, should give the effect of natural, spontaneous

language. The basic teaching strategy is simple: each teacher should work in the classroom as if there were no other language in the world and the child's entire education depended on her efforts.

Part Two: Basic Points and Supporting References for Counselors

I There Is No Evidence That Bilingualism Per Se Is A Handicap

The Jensen and Haugen review of scores of studies of bilingualism reveal that where bilingualism has been found to be a problem is commonly in situations where child-speakers of a home language which is different from the school language are given no formal instruction in and through their home language.[10] It is important to bear in mind that such studies are of bilingualism, ***not of bilingual schooling***.

The evidence seems to be that the problems of bilingual children arise not from the fact of their speaking two languages, but from educational policy affecting the *two* languages, and from other factors, sociological and economic, outside of the school. The fact is that bilingualism is eagerly sought, world-wide, both by the elite and by the middle and lower classes, for the intellectual and economic advantages it can bring. This is most readily apparent in the newly-emerging nations, but is no less true in older countries such as Belgium, Sweden, the Netherlands, and Mexico.[11]

II "It Is Axiomatic, World-Wide, That The Best Medium For Teaching A Child Is His Mother Tongue."

Continuing the quotation, "Psychologically, it is the system of meaningful signs that in his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally, he learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium."[12]

It is true, as LePage points out, that in multilingual communities and when the mother tongue has little or no written literature, it is extremely difficult to observe the axiom. This is obviously not true in the case of Spanish.

III There Is Evidence That If School Policy And Other Conditions Are Favorable, Bilingual Schooling Results In Superior Educational Achievement.

The most revealing study is by Wallace Lambert and Elizabeth Peal.[13] It suggests strongly the superiority of bilinguals over monolinguals when control and experimental groups were of equal socio-economic status and the degree of the experimental subjects' bilingualism was taken fully into account. The Lambert-Peal study and other evidence (e.g., test score data from the Coral Way elementary school in Miami, set forth elsewhere in this essay) indicate that apart from factors outside the school and its control, the effectiveness of bilingual schooling depends on *the time and*

treatment given to each of the languages.

IV THERE IS EVIDENCE OF INCREASING ACCEPTANCE OF THE POSSIBILITY OF A MIDDLE ROAD FOR THE SPANISH-SPEAKING BILINGUAL: NEITHER SUBCULTURAL ISOLATION FROM THE MAIN STREAM OF AMERICAN LIFE, NOR THE ALIENATION OF "CUT ALL TIES, AND ANGLICIZE." The middle road is biculturalism built on strong literacy in both English and Spanish.

> "Often . . . a culture is rendered obsolete and an anachronism on another. This the case of the Spanish folk culture in relation to the Anglo culture. . . . there is no justification other than pure nostalgia to preserve that culture.
>
> "The only salvation for the Spanish-American who finds himself in the painful and traumatic road of transition is complete acculturation and assimilation. . . . If we insist on preserving the minority group's culture we are insisting on a cultural zoo where tourists may come and feed us peanuts much like the monkeys in the cage. If we insist that a minority group member retains his cultural identity we are asking him to remain a foreigner. And Americans hate foreigners and we are asking him to be the object of vicious prejudice and discrimination.
>
> "Furthermore, in the case of the Spanish-Americans the process of acculturation has gone so far as to make it irreversible." [14]

In this view, the task of the counselor and the administrator is to set the school on a course of action that will give every member of the faculty and student body — indeed the whole community — complete understanding of the acculturation and urbanization process.

The emerging view — the middle road — is the theme of this paper and previous publications of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers. In this view the policy of assimilation-by-alienation helps to maintain the low socio-economic status quo of the Spanish-speaking community because it results in constant loss of the best educated, the potential leaders. On the other hand — the middle view contends — if those potential leaders remain attached by strong linguistic and other communal bonds there will be ever more and stronger native voices speaking up to defend the community.

In addition to the work of the Southwest Council, other projects, under way, or being planned, are seeking or taking the new middle road. See the Appendix.

V INSOFAR AS EDUCATIONAL POLICY IS CONCERNED, THERE IS AN IMMENSE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ADDING A SECOND LANGUAGE MEDIUM TO THE CURRICULUM AND ADDING THE MOTHER TONGUE MEDIUM TO THE CURRICULUM.

When a second language is added as a medium of instruction the school is choosing to foster bilingualism where none existed before. The reasons are:

a) To take advantage of the young child's extraordinary ability to learn a new language unconsciously, effortlessly, avoiding the problems and pain of regular foreign language courses; [15]
b) By using the second language to teach other subjects, to give the child maximum exposure to the new language without taking time from the rest of the curriculum;
c) Cultural enrichment, economic gain, etc., the usual reasons for learning a foreign language.

When the mother tongue is added to the curriculum it is not a question of fostering bilingualism where none existed before: the bilingualism is there and it cannot be eradicated by law, wishful thinking, or school policies. The question is whether the existing bilingualism is to be an asset or a liability. The main reasons for adding the mother tongue are entirely different:

a) To avoid the retardation that results when the child is obliged to learn through a language he does not command;
b) To establish a close, mutually-reinforcing relationship between the home and the school;
c) To avoid the traumatic alienation from family and community that commonly results from the "cut all ties, and anglicize" policy; [16]
d) A final set of reasons — cultural enrichment, economic gain, etc., — apply here as they apply to second language learning, except that the potential for developing the mother tongue is far greater.

VI The Derogatory Remarks About The "Quality" of The Spanish Spoken In The American Southwest Are Usually Uninformed And Should Usually Be Disregarded.

It is true that there are regional variations from the standard Spanish of Mexico, notably the archaistic remnants in northern New Mexico and the "pachuco" argots of some cities, and there is widespread recourse to lexical borrowing from English. What matters in determining school procedures is the extent to which the "deep grammar" (See Point V for administrators) and the sound system vary from the standard. The judgment for each locality can best be made by a specialist in descriptive linguistics who speaks Spanish very well. The minimum requirement for participation in a mother tongue development program is the ability to understand readily ordinary conversation and simple explanations given in the language by a native speaker.

SUPPORTING REFERENCES

1. The Illinois school became bilingual in 1963-64 in kindergarten and grade one. All pupils received 30 minutes of "subject-matter" instruction daily *through* Spanish. In 1964-65 and 1965-66 the time was increased to one hour daily. A grade level is added each year. The plan is to divide the day equally between the two languages as soon as funds can be secured to employ the teachers. The principal is Mr. Roger E. Robinson.
The Spanish-S program, grades 1-12, provides for native Spanish speakers one class period daily of Spanish language arts and literature. This is in no sense like traditional foreign language teaching. Course syllabi can be secured from the Dade County Superintendent of Schools, Lindsey Hopkins Building, Miami, Florida.

2. There is some discussion favoring mixing the languages in the article by Esther Dartigue, "Bilingualism in the Nursery School," in the *French Review*, vol. XXXIX, No. 4, February 1966. For the other point of view see H. H. Stern (ed.) *Foreign Languages in Primary Education: The Teaching of Foreign or Second Languages to Younger Children* (Report on an International Meeting of Experts, 9-14 April, 1962, International Studies in Education) Hamburg: UNESCO Institute of Education, 1963.

3. W. Freeman Twaddell, "Does the FL Teacher Have to Teach English Grammar," in *PMLA*, vol. LXXVII, No. 2, May 1962, p. 20.

4. *Freedom and Discipline in English — Report of the Commission on English*, New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1965, p. 23.

5. Consider the emphasis on words in the "little school of the 400" program.

6. George A. C. Scherer et al., "Reading for Meaning," pp. 46-47, in *Language Learning: The Intermediate Phase — Reports of the Working Committees*, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of the Foreign Languages, 1963 (Available through Modern Language Association, 4 Washington Place, New York, N. Y.)
Preschool Instructional Program for Non-English Speaking Children, Bulletin 642, Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency, 1964.

7. Commission on English, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

8. John B. Carroll, "A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading Behavior," in *English Teaching Forum*, vol. IV, No. 1, Spring 1966, pp. 2-7.

9. Commission on English, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

10. J. Vernon Jensen, *Bilingualism — Effects of childhood bilingualism* (Reprinted from *Elementary English*, Feb. 1962, pp. 132-145, April 1962, pp. 358-366) Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1962.
Einar Haugen, *Bilingualism in the Americas: A Bibliography Guide*. American Dialect Society Publication, No. 26. University of Alabama Press, 1956.

11. R. B. LePage, *The National Language Question — Linguistic Problems of Newly Independent States*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1964. This is a particularly illuminating treatment of language problems as they relate to communal, cultural, patriotic, and economic interests, particularly in multilingual areas.

12. UNESCO, *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education* (Monographs on Fundamental Education — VIII) Paris: UNESCO, 1963, p. 11 and *passim*. H. H. Stern (ed.) *op. cit.*

13. Wallace Lambert and Elizabeth Peal, "The Relation of Bilingualism to Intelligence," in *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied*, No. 546, vol. 76, No. 27, Washington, D. C.: American Psychological Association, 1333 16th St., N. W., 1962.

14. Horacio Ulibarri, *The Perplexities for the Individual in Transition*, Alamosa, Colorado: Adams State College (The Center for Cultural Studies) 1964.

15. H. H. Stern, *op. cit.*, chapter 11.
Theodore Andersson, "The Optimum Age for Beginning the Study of Modern Languages," in *International Review of Education*, vol. 6, No. 3, 1960, pp. 298-306.
Wilder Penfield and L. Roberts, *Speech and Brain Mechanisms*, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1956, final chapter.

16. William Madsen, "The Alcoholic Agringado," in *American Anthropologist*, 66, 1964, pp. 355-361.

Appendix: Some bilingual schools and related projects in the United States

I ONE-WAY SCHOOLS

A. Adding the mother tongue
   a. Equal time, treatment (None Known)
   b. Unequal time, treatment
      1. Spanish-S program in grades 1-12, Dade County Public Schools, Miami, Fla. (See footnote No. 1.)
      2. Spanish language arts, plus health, music, social studies in grades 1-4, 30 minutes daily, in three elementary schools, Houston, Texas, Independent School District. Olivia Muñoz, Supervisor of Foreign Language.
      3. Latin American literature and geography in Spanish to Spanish speakers at senior high school level. Albuquerque (New Mexico) Public Schools. Ann Komadina, Foreign Language Consultant.
      4. Spanish and Mexican literature and commercial correspondence in Spanish to native speakers in Pueblo High School, Tucson, Arizona, since 1959. Henry Oyama, Foreign Language Department Chairman.
      5. Spanish and Spanish American history and literature, in Spanish to native speakers in Phoenix (Arizona) Union High School. María Vega, teacher.

B. ADDING SECOND LANGUAGE
   a. Equal time, treatment (None Known)
   b. Unequal time, treatment
      1. World history, etc., in French, Spanish, to advanced Anglo language students in ten Virginia high schools. Helen P. Warriner, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, Virginia State Department of Education, Richmond.
      2. Biology in German to advanced students of German in Carbon High School, Price, Utah. Lynn Broadbent, teacher.
      3. University School, Spanish to Anglos in grades K-6, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Ill. (See footnote No. 1.)

II TWO-WAY SCHOOLS

A. Mixed classes
   a. Equal time, treatment
      1. United Consolidated School District, Laredo, Texas; Spanish and English in three elementary schools. Harold C. Brantley, Superintendent.

B. Segregated classes
   a. Equal time, treatment
      1. Coral Way Elementary, Miami, Florida; Spanish and English to Anglos and Cubans; grades 1-6. Art, music, physical education, mixed; other classes increasingly mixed in grades 4-6. J. Lee Logan, Principal.
      2. Central Beach Elementary, Miami Beach, Florida. Same plan as Coral Way, above.

III Related Projects

A. Mexican-American Study Project, University of California, Los Angeles. Director, Dr. Leo Grebler. Supported by Ford Foundation. A large-scale "bench-mark" study covering five states and attending to basic demographic, economic, political, and cultural aspects of Mexican-American life. 1963-67. (Information supplied by Dr. Joshua Fishman.)

B. Survey of the teaching of Spanish to the Spanish-Speaking, completed with support from Deparmtent of Rural Education of the National Education Association. Project chairman: María Urquides, Pueblo High School, Tucson, Arizona.

C. The Ann Arbor (Michigan) Public Schools have support from the U. S. Office of Education for statewide planning of foreign language development including a "humanities and area-study approach to foreign language team teaching" to integrate FL study with other course work through its use as a medium in the 12th grade; and the development and conservation of native bilingualism in self-selected Michigan communities, by adding the mother tongue as a medium, K-12, to reinforce the regular curriculum. The project director is James McClafferty.

D. Extensive experiment, 1964-66, to compare effect on reading readiness (in Spanish-speaking first graders) of intensive audiolingual language instruction in English with intensive audiolingual instruction in Spanish. San Antonio Independent School District, Dr. Thomas D. Horn, University of Texas, Director.

E. Many of the dreams of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers have taken form in the Title III pilot program which was inagurated in 1966 under the auspices of the El Paso Public Schools. Significant findings will be released at a later date by Mrs. Marie Esman Barker, Program Director.

Report II

METHODS AND MATERIALS

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Bilingualism: Programs, Methods and Materials

SUMMARY OF REPORT

This report comprises two statements on the development of a bilingual program in public schools: "Suggested Objectives for a Bilingual Program," by Chester C. Christian, Jr., and "Tentative Guidelines for a Bilingual Curriculum," by Dr. Joseph Michel; one materials list contributed by Víctor Cruz-Aedo; and a bibliography on bilingualism prepared by Dr. Jack A. Dabbs.

In the introduction of the Christian report it is made clear that effecting the bilingual school program is a public privilege and responsibility. It should be clearly defined for school boards and superintendents, who will have final responsibility in implementing it. Finally, a judicious, well-defined set of objectives is in order in view of newer concepts in language learning in the mid-twentieth century.

Fifteen objectives, or guidelines, follow: (1) There is the need for defining and understanding language as a set of spoken and written symbols of communication. (2) Language must be recognized as a *cultural* medium. (3) Language, as a mother tongue, is an obvious vehicle for human relations and for learning various subjects. (4) There must be awareness of the relationship of the mother tongue to the learning of second languages. (5) Language has both personal and *intercultural* values, and its development is to the national interest. (6) There should be promoted the idea that a child at age six already has authentic knowledge of his own idiom and is ready to learn a second. (7) We must recognize language as a medium for learning other subjects. (8) We must launch a bilingual program of progressive, psychologically-sound steps in order to advance the above objective. (9) Upon reaching grade six, students of both language backgrounds should be able to function in all subjects of the curriculum. (10) At the end of grade twelve, English-speaking students should have reached Level VI of the second language. (11) By the end of grade six, non-English-speaking students should be able to function in both tongues with equal ease. (12) Pride in the mother tongue and its culture is essential. (13) There must be launched a "pilot" bilingual program to be compared eventually with the traditional monolingual program. (14) The above must be judged objectively. (15) Experimental conclusions must be made available.

At the outset of "Tentative Guidelines for a Bilingual Curriculum," Dr. Michel states the great need for recognition of bilingual communities, where such a program can cope with and utilize a culture so unlike the Anglo-Saxon. He then advances three general objectives of bilingualism: skill in two tongues, satisfactory learning in all subjects, and personal development.

Bilingual skill should be developed by taking the mother tongue first and then advancing to the second language. Both the mother language and the second language should be used as media of instruction, bringing about an efficacious double-exposure to subject matter.

Personal adjustment becomes a reality when the non-English-speaking student finds that his mother tongue is used and respected in the school.

Dr. Michel then broaches the subject of the need for integrating students of different language backgrounds, suggesting three scheduling plans: I. Employing Spanish half of the day, English the other half. II. Gradually mixing the English language students with the Spanish, as in the case in a nearly monolingual group in Miami. III. In a school of one hundred per cent Spanish student population, one moves progressively from one-fourth Spanish — three-fourths English to the reverse proportion.

Next, the application of the two languages in various subject areas is analyzed.

English Languages Arts and Foreign Languages: One should move progressively from the mother tongue to the second, which can be "insinuated" (French sense of the word) through the media of pleasurable experiences, as games and music, and finally employed as an actual reading and writing vehicle.

Social Studies, Health, and Safety: Same progressive and eventual presentation of cultural values and intercultural understanding through the two idioms.

Arithmetic and Science: With competent bilingual teachers, this culture-free area can be presented effectively in both idioms.

The Arts and Physical Education: The very *actions* involved in these areas make for rapid second-language learning.

Success in all of the above four areas depends, of course, on the availability of competent bilingual teachers.

When the time comes for the evaluation of such a program, objectives well-defined in advance must be re-examined objectively. Especially competent teachers must have participated in the program. Significant evaluation results must be widely disseminated.

Dr. Michel concludes that such a program can be effected without changing the basic curriculum (though some flexibility is desirable). The desired result is the development of a "coordinate bilingual" who fits easily into the American scene.

The preliminary list of materials prepared by Víctor Cruz-Aedo of the Laredo schools comprises language and other subject textbooks (written in Spanish, as a Spanish arithmetic) now in use, teachers' manuals, books for potential future use, testing material, songs and stories of the well-known Cri-Cri series, and the usual visual aids.

Dr. Dabbs' bibliography gives us a summary of a number of significant books on bilingualism over the entire world and embracing more than the mere Spanish-English problem. Of particular interest are those articles and books which seek to show the role of bilingualism in cultural development, in the growth of intelligence itself, and the use of the learner's mother tongue in beginning formal education.

A Selected Bibliography on Bilingualism

JACK A. DABBS

The following list includes only the most significant items with respect to the thoroughness of treatment or those which illustrate new steps in the development of studies on the subject. After the usual bibliographical data are comments which indicate the reason for inclusion in this list. In order to show development of the studies, the items are listed by the year of publication.

1. PINTNER, R., & KELLER, R. Intelligence tests of foreign children *J. Educ. Psych.*, 1922, 13, pp. 214-222. Concluded monolinguals lower on Stanford-Binet; socio-economic factors were not considered; bilingualism not well defined.
2. SAER, D. J. The effects of bilingualism on intelligence. *Brit J. Psych.*, 1923, 14, pp. 25-38. Showed rural bilingual children in Wales inferior to rural monolinguals.
3. GRAHAM, V. T. The intelligence of Italian and Jewish children. *J. Abnorm. Soc. Psych.*, 1925, 20, pp. 371-376. Showed monolingual American groups superior, but had no controls for age or socio-economic class.
4. WANG, S. L. A demonstration of the language difficulty involved in comparing racial groups by means of verbal intelligence tests. *J. Appl. Psych.*, 1926, 10, pp. 102-106. Showed monolingual American groups superior, but had no controls for age or socio-economic class.
5. DARSIE, M. L. The mental capacity of American-born Japanese children. *Comp. Psych. Monogram,* 1926, 3, pp. 1-18. Tested Japanese and American children. Found no significant difference between intelligence of monolinguals and bilinguals. Bilingualism was not well defined.
6. MEAD, M. Group intelligence and linguistic disability among Italian children. *Sch. Soc.*, 1927, 25, pp. 465-468. Showed monolingual American groups superior, but had no controls for age or socio-economic class.
7. RIGG, M. Some further data on the language handicap. *J. Educ. Psych.*, 1928, 19, pp. 252-257. Showed monolingual American groups superior, but had no controls for age or socio-economic class.
8. PINTNER, R. The influence of language background on intelligence tests. *J. Soc. Psych.*, 1932, 3, pp. 235-240. Tested 3 bilingual groups and 3 monolingual groups in NYC. One group showed monolinguals superior; one showed no difference; one showed monolinguals inferior. Bilingualism was determined by family name!
9. HILL, H. S. The effects of bilingualism on the measured intelligence of elementary school children of Italian parentage. *J. Exp. Educ.* 1936, 5, pp. 75-79. Tested Italian-American children matched for age, sex, socio-economic class, and IQ. Bilingualism

was not well defined. Concluded no reliable differences.

10. PINTNER, R., & ARSENIAN, S. The relation of bilingualism to verbal intelligence and school adjustment. *J. Educ. Res.*, 1937, 31, pp. 255-263. Tested Yiddish-English children of NYC. Concluded relationship between intelligence and bilingualism negligible.
11. SEIDL, J. C. G. The effect of bilingualism on the measurement of intelligence. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, 1937. Showed monolinguals superior on verbal tests; bilinguals on performance. Socio-economic levels were not taken as a factor.
12. SPOERL, DOROTHY T. The academic and verbal adjustment of college-age bilingual students. *J. Genet. Psych.*, 1944, 64, pp. 139-157. Tested bilingual freshmen in a college matched for sex, age, intelligence, and social class. No significant differences were found; but within the same IQ group the bilinguals did better in school work.
13. DARCY, NATALIE T. The effect of bilingualism upon the measurement of the intelligence of children of preschool age. *J. Educ. Psych.*, 1946, 37, pp. 21-44. Tested U. S. preschool children (Italian parentage); matched age, sex, social class. Monolinguals scored higher on Stanford-Binet, lower on Atkins test. Children were very young (2-6).
14. LEOPOLD, W. F. *Speech development of a bilingual child.* Vol. 3. Evanston: Northwestern Univer. Press, 1949. After careful observations of his own child, concluded that the bilingual child learns to separate sound of a word from its referent.
15. JONES, W. R., & STEWART, W. A. Bilingualism and verbal intelligence. *Brit. J. Psych.*, 1951, 4, pp. 3-8. Tested children in Wales; found bilinguals inferior; tests were translated into Welsh, but not converted to Welsh cultural milieu.
16. ALTUS, GRACE T. WISC patterns of a selective sample of bilingual school children. *J. Genet. Psych.*, 1953, 83, pp. 241-248. Tested group of "dull" children, matched for age, sex, IQ (Wechsler Scale). Showed monolinguals higher achievers.
17. Great Britain, Ministry of Education. The place of Welsh and English in the schools of Wales: Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (Wales), Professor R. I. Aaron, chairman: Mr. E. Glyn Lewis, H.M.I., secretary. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1953, 112 pp. A comprehensive review of the problem of bilingualism in Wales, moderate and objective in tone. Contains valuable bibliography of 120 items on certain psychological aspects of bilingualism.
18. WEINREICH, URIEL. Language in contact: Findings and problems. Publications of the Linguistic Circle of New York, 1953, No. 1. Reprinted Mouton (The Hague), 1964, pp. 148. Has an almost complete bibliography of bilingual studies (658 items, but not all deal with bilingualism) as of the date of printing. Studies the problems from all angles. Perhaps the most important work on the subject to its date.
19. JOHNSON, G. B. Bilingualism as measured by a reaction-time

technique and the relationship between a language and a non-language intelligence quotient. *J. Genet. Psych.*, 1953, 82, pp. 3-9. Tested 30 bilingual Spanish-English students 9-12 yrs. The more bilingual students did better on performance tests, worse on verbal test.

20. UNESCO. The use of vernacular languages in education. Paris, 1953. Report of some twelve international experts, describes status of education in bilingual areas in all parts of the world, and strongly recommends use of learners' mother tongue in beginning formal education.
21. McCARTHY, DOROTHEA. Language development in children. In L. Carmichael (Ed.), *Manual of Child Psychology*. New York: Wiley, 1953. First study to show socio-economic status to be related to intelligence and linguistic development.
22. HAUGEN, EINAR. Bilingualism in the Americas: A bibliography and research guide. Publication of the American Dialect Society, No. 26, Nov., 1956. Bibliography pp. 125-156, lists about 700 references, not all directly pertinent. After the description of existing situation, studies the mechanics of language contact and examines the bilingual individual, the bilingual community, and contemporary research. As a textbook most valuable work to date.
23. O'DOHERTY, E. F. Bilingualism: Educational aspects. *Advanced Sci.*, 1958, 56, pp. 282-286. Distinguished between the true bilingual and the pseudo-bilingual. Believed the low scores on tests are attributable to the semi-literacy of the pseudo-bilingual. Recognized influence of "interference" of one language on another re the pseudo-bilingual.
24. LEVINSON, B. M. A comparison of the performance of bilingual and monolingual native-born Jewish preschool children of traditional parentage on four intelligence tests. *J. Clin. Psych.*, 1959, 15, pp. 74-76. Tested Jewish preschool (USA) children of similar socio-economic level. Scored equal on Goodenough test; on Stanford-Binet monolinguals scored higher.
25. LEWIS, D. G. Bilingualism and non-verbal intelligence: A further study of tests results. *Brit. J. Educ. Psych.*, 1959, 29, pp. 17-22. Reported monolinguals superior on a non-verbal test.
26. JAMES C. B. E. Bilingualism in Wales: An aspect of semantic organization. *Educ. Res.*, 1960, 2, pp. 123-136. Pointed out that the Jones-Stewart tests had not taken socio-economic factors into consideration. Same for Lewis 1959.
27. JONES, W. R. A critical study of bilingualism and non-verbal intelligence. *Brit. J. Educ. Psych.*, 1960, 30, pp. 71-76. Second study which showed socio-economic status to be related to intelligence and linguistic development.
28. PEAL, ELIZABETH & LAMBERT, WALLACE E. The relation of bilingualism to intelligence. *Psychological Monographs, General and Applied*, No. 546, 1962. Tested 10-year-olds in Montreal; tested as to degree of bilingualism. Found bilinguals performed significantly better than monolinguals on both verbal and non-verbal intelligence tests. Recognized the influence of attitudes on influence of bilingualism.

29. STERN, H. H. Foreign languages in primary education. Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963. Report on international meeting of experts 1962. Considers psychological aspects of bilingualism, second languages in bilingual or multilingual communities, bilingual schools, etc.
30. *Modern Language Journal*, March, 1965. Contains articles by Theodore Andersson, Joshua A. Fishman, A. Bruce Gaarder, *et al.* Issue was devoted primarily to articles on bilingualism, as a goal to be fostered. Together with work by Weinreich and Haugen these three constitute a basic working library for further studies.
31. BOYER, M. Poverty and the mother tongue. *Ed. Forum*, 1965, pp. 290-296. A statement of the interrelationship between socio-economic status and education, especially in language and culture.
32. FISHMAN, J. A. Language loyalty in the United States. The Hague, Mouton, 1966. A comprehensive study of non-English mother tongues together with a critical evaluation of the forces contributing to their maintenance and perpetuation. Especially relevant chapter on "Spanish language and culture in the Southwest by Jane MacNat Christian and Chester C. Christian, Jr.

Suggested Objectives for a Bilingual Program

CHESTER C. CHRISTIAN, JR.

Education in our country is a public responsibility. Educators are accountable to the public and our classes are open to citizens, who can easily get permission to visit them. And every taxpayer has the right to understand all aspects of the education which he is helping to support.

Initial responsibility for language education belongs with language teachers and specialists. They must be prepared to justify their planned program to the school administrators, who are in turn responsible to the school board. It is the school board which in the last analysis is answerable to the public for local educational policy and practice.

Bilingual education was common in our country between about 1840 and World War I and is an accepted practice in many parts of the world today. But in our mid-twentieth-century thinking about education it represents a new concept. We must therefore rethink both our theory and our practice to be sure that they fit our present and future requirements. And as we launch new bilingual programs, we must proceed cautiously and in an experimental spirit, for we are yet far from knowing everything that we need to know in order to plan and carry out a sound and effective bilingual program.

The first step is to state the objectives of such a program. Primary responsibility for stating the objectives and for accomplishing them rests on the language teachers; but, since they cannot succeed without help, the school system as a whole must share the responsibility.

SUGGESTED OBJECTIVES

1. To understand and explain the nature of language as a learned and shared system of arbitrary vocal or written symbols with which people communicate.

2. To understand and explain the role of language to express and reflect culture, that is, the thoughts, feelings, behavior, and values of a group of people living together.

3. To understand and explain the nature of the mother tongue as an essential instrument for expressing one's personality, relating to one's family and cultural group, and learning about the world outside.

4. To understand and explain the relation of the mother tongue to a second language (spoken as a mother tongue by others in the community) and to foreign languages (spoken natively by foreigners and studied as a subject in school).

5. To understand and explain the contributions of language learning to personal development, to intercultural understanding, and to the national interest.

6. To understand and explain the normal process of language learning:

for example, that a child of six has already learned to understand and speak authentically his mother tongue; that he is ready to learn to read and write his mother tongue; and that he is ready to learn to understand and speak a second language.

7. To understand and explain the difference between studying a second language as a subject and using it as a medium of teaching and learning.

8. To incorporate these understandings into a well integrated bilingual program in which the mother tongue and the second language are taught in psychologically proper order and relation and with steady progression.

9. To enable English-speaking and non-English speaking pupils to progress without grade retention and by the end of grade six to reach grade-level achievement in all subjects of the curriculum.

10. To enable English-speaking pupils to achieve a minimum all-round proficiency in the second language as follows: at the end of grade six, Level I on the Brooks scale; at the end of grade eight, level II, at the end of grade nine, level III; at the end of grade ten, level IV; at the end of grade eleven, level V and at the end of grade twelve, level VI.

11. To enable non-English-speaking pupils by the end of grade six to achieve an all-round proficiency in their mother tongue such as will permit them to pursue their studies with approximately equal ease in their mother tongue and in their second language.

12. To cultivate in all pupils a pride in their mother tongue and in the culture it represents and an understanding of the culture represented by the second language.

13. To design carefully an experimental pilot program in such a way as to compare the educational results of such a bilingual program with those of a similar monolingual program.

14. To provide for objective evaluation, preferably by outside personnel, of this pilot experiment.

15. To disseminate significant conclusions resulting from the experiment.

Preliminary List of Materials

VICTOR CRUZ-AEDO

The following materials are either in use or under consideration in the bilingual program in the primary grades of the Nye Elementary School of the United Consolidated Independent School District of Laredo. Most of the materials in use have been obtained from Mexico.

I. BOOKS IN USE

Argüellos, L. J., *Ejercicios de Lenguaje,* Editorial Herrero Hermanos, Suc. S. A., 1960
Basurto, C., *Mis Primeras Letras,* Editorial Trillos, S. A., 1964.
Lechuga, *Aritmética de Primero*
Hernández, Ruiz, *Aritmética de Primero*
Shepperd, E., *Horas Felices,* Editorial Patria, S. A., 1959.
Torres Quintero G., *Método Onomatopéyico,* Editorial Patria, S. A., 1964.
Galindolm, Valdez, *Felicidad,* Impresora Azteca, S. de R. L., 1960.
Método Rébsamen
Rosita y Juanito

II. BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

MacRae, Margit, *Mi Cuaderno de Español,* Houghton Mifflin, 1959.
----------, *Spanish in the Grades,* Houghton Mifflin, 1959.
Velásquez, *Spanish-English Dictionary*

III. BOOKS UNDER CONSIDERATION

Pastor, Ángeles; Rosa Guzmán Viuda de Capó; Carmen Gómez de Tijerina, *¡A Jugar y a Gozar!* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1960.
----------, *¡A la Escuela!* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1961.
----------, *Amigos de Aquí y de Allá,* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1962.
----------, *Mis Juegos y Cuentos,* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1960.
----------, *Nuestro Mundo Maravilloso,* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1962.
----------, *Por Esos Caminos,* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1963.
----------, *Pueblo y Campo,* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1962.
----------,*Sorpresas Maravillosas,* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1963.
----------, *Una Mirada al Pasado,* Dallas, Texas: Laidlaw Brothers, Inc., 1965.

The following list was prepared by the English Section, Curriculum

Division, Department of Education, of the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Cebollero, P., *Aire y Sol,* Ginn and Co., 1956.
----------, *La Ciencia en Nuestra Vida,* Ginn and Co., 1957
----------, *La Ciencia Hoy y Mañana,* Ginn and Co., 1959.
----------, *Nuestro Mundo Tropical,* Ginn and Co., 1953.
----------, *Tierra y Cielo,* Ginn and Co., 1955.
---------- y Tosado, *Aritmética Social 3,* Ginn and Co., 1958.
----------, *Aritmética Social 4,* Ginn and Co., 1959.
----------, *Aritmética Social 5,* Ginn and Co., 1962.
----------, *Aritmética Social 6,* Ginn and Co., 1949.

IV. TESTING MATERIAL

Lee Clark Reading Readiness Test, 1962 Revision.
Science Research Associates, Inc., *Primary Mental Agility*
----------, *General Ability* K-2, 2-4, 4-6, K-12 (and with Spanish instructions).
----------, *Achievement* 1-2, 2-4, 4-6 (and with Spanish instructions).
United Consolidated Independent School District, *Prueba de Aprovechamiento,* Programa Bilingüe, Primaria: Lectura de Palabras, Significado de Párrafo, Vocabulario, Ortografía, Identificación de Sonidos (Iniciales, Finales), Aritmética.

V. TEMAS MUSICALES, CUENTOS Y CANCIONES (CINTAS)

* Cuento
** Canto

Parte 1: Tema Musical de Cri Cri
Un Grillito Convertido en Señor *
Di Porqué **
Desacuerdo de Cri Cri *
Che Araña **
Arte de Reír *
Negrito Bailarín *

Parte 2: Tema de Cri Cri (Polka)
Encuentro con un Publicista *
Lunada **
Los Negocios Imposibles *
El Teléfono **
Triste Fin de una Promoción *
Bombom 1 **

Parte 3: Tema de Cri Cri (Cigaresca)
Tratado de Lluvia *
Llueve **
¿Quién dijo Aburrirse? *
Jota de la "J" **
Una Damita Difícil **
Tete **

Parte 4: Tema Musical (Los 4 Invencibles)
Cuatro Barbajones en Acción *

Campanitas **
Aventura Chinesca Interrumpida *
La Mariposa **
Cri Cri, Poeta Fracasado *
Casamiento de los Paloyos **

Parte 5: Tema de Cri Cri (Vals)
Modo de Flotar en el Agua *
Marina **
Un Mundo Submarino *
Valor de la Fantasía *
Marcha de las Letras **

Parte 6: Tema de Cri Cri (Blues)
Una Familia Metódica *
El Ropavejero **
Más Equivocaciones de Cri Cri *
Rusiana **
Final Inesperado *
Las Brujas **

Parte 7: Tema de Cri Cri (Capricho Telegrafico)
Casa de Millones *
Cucurrumbé **
Los Ensueños de Cri Cri *
El Jicote Aguamielero **
Mexicanismos y Preocupaciones *
Gato de Barrio **

Parte 8: Tema de Cri Cri (Tango)
Soñados en Gira *
Fiesta de Zapatos **
Tratado del Ruido *
La Patita **
Reciedumbre del Sexo Débil *
Cochinitos Dormilones **

Parte 9: Tema de los Cuatro Invencibles (Variación)
Más Barrabasadas de los Cuatro Invencibles *
El Ratón Vaquero **
Conmoción en el País de los Cuentos *
La Merienda **
Expulsión Musical de Ingratos *
La Maquinita **

Parte 10: Tema de "La Cacería"
Cazadores Antipáticos *
El Venadito **
Cri Cri Busca un Empleo *
Mi Burrita **
Editores Inaccesibles *
El Soldadito Cojo **

Parte 11: Tema de Cri Cri
Estupenda Quietud del Bosque *
¿Cómo te Va? **
Cri Cri Se Complica la Vida *
El Comal y la Olla **

Retorno a la Casa Sin Techo *
Juan Pestañas **

Parte 12: Tema Cri Cri (Galop)
Un Viaje de Cri Cri *
La Muñeca Fea **
Otro País Que No Está en los Altos *
Vals del Trompo (pieza de orquesta)
Inconveniencias de Ser Callado *
Negrito Sandía **

Parte 13: Tema de Cri Cri (Vals en re)
Náutica Ínfima *
El Marinero **
¡Conozca Usted el Mundo! *
Papá Elefante **
Atleta Oficinista de Récord Único *
Jorobita **

Parte 14: Tema de Cri Cri (Arrullo del Río)
Mañanitas Mojadas *
El Chorrito *
Gustos de Cri Cri *
Baile de Muñecos **
Más Confesiones Sentimentales *
El Fantasma **

Parte 15: Tema de Cri Cri (Gallegadas)
Atardecer Campestre *
El Perrito **
Una Noche Desastrosa *
Vals del Rey **
El Chivo Ciclista **

Parte 16: Tema de Cri Cri (Tropical)
Cri Cri, Físico *
El Carrusel **
Cri Cri, Botánico *
La Guacamaya **
Cri Cri, Zoológico *
Marcha de las Canicas **

Parte 17: Tema de Cri Cri (Chiapanecas)
Un Documento Interesante *
Gallegada **
Consejos Difíciles de Seguir *
Caminito de la Escuela **
Final Trágico, Sin Tango *
Los Caballitos **

Parte 18: Tema de Cri Cri (Marcha)
Receta de Felicidad *
El Ropero **
Geografía Ingenua *
Chong-Ki-Fú **
Atenta Despedida de un Servidor *
Tango Medroso **
Adiós (Poema) Saltarían en Sol Bemol

VI. VISUAL AIDS

Flash Cards (Used extensively)
Flannel Graph (Materials in most teaching areas)
Transparencies (In preparation)
Movies (Spanish dialogue on tape being prepared)
Globes
Aquarium
Live Animals

Tentative Guidelines for a Bilingual Curriculum

JOSEPH MICHEL

THE NEED FOR BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

The term "curriculum" is generally used to designate a total school program or course of study, with its aims, scheduling, content, procedures, and evaluation.

The curriculum of the American school, normally designed for monolingual children, fails to take fully into account the child in our bilingual communities whose language and culture are different from those of our English-speaking children.

The following tentative guidelines are suggested to assist those school systems which desire to meet the needs of these neglected children. Our guidelines are based on observation, personal experience, and theory; but the final validity of bilingual programs will need experimental verification.

OBJECTIVES OF A BILINGUAL PROGRAM

The objectives of a bilingual program, which are proposed in another section, may be summarized as follows: (1) skill in two languages, (2) satisfactory learning in all subject areas of the curriculum, and (3) personal adjustment.

BILINGUAL SKILLS

Since one of our purposes is as nearly as possible to form and educate balanced coordinated bilinguals — children capable of thinking and feeling in either of two languages independently — instruction should, we believe, be given in both languages, first in the mother tongue and then in the second language.

LANGUAGE AS SUBJECT AND AS MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

Traditionally, foreign languages and even English have been taught in our schools as subjects to be studied. Our proposal to use both the mother tongue and the second language as media of instruction also will, we believe, result in much more effective language learning. English-speaking children, seeing other children and a teacher actually communicating in a second language — and in the classroom — will realize as never before that this second language is a real live language and will be stimulated to try to understand what is being said and to take part in the communication. The non-English-speaking children in turn, seeing their language respected and finding that in their own language at least they can shine, will, if our theory is sound, be motivated to learn as they have never been before.

Learning in All Subject Areas

Educators in many parts of the world agree that, to be most effective, formal schooling must be initiated in the child's mother tongue. Only in it can a child understand fully what others are saying and express himself freely. Experiences in many countries supporting this view are reported in the UNESCO Monograph on Fundamental Education No. 8, entitled *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education* (Paris, 1953). When, as we suggest, all subjects are taught not only in the child's mother tongue but also in his second language, there is double exposure, which adds to the learning effectiveness.

Personal Adjustment

Perhaps the most important objective of the bilingual program is to enable all children to operate comfortably in two cultures. The non-English-speaking child who is suddenly taken from his home and introduced into the strange environment of the school experiences embarrassment and confusion. But if he is greeted in his own language by a teacher who is obviously a member of his own language community and finds that his language is used freely in the classroom and throughout the school, his situation is made less traumatic. If, in addition, he finds that as a member of a non-English-speaking group he is not treated as a second-class human being, the boost to his self-esteem is likely to result in all sorts of psychological and social benefits which are summed up by the term "personal adjustment."

Two Language Groups: Mixed or Separate?

In any given school in this part of the country there may be monolinguals in English, monolinguals in Spanish, and bilinguals of various shades between. Since children learn not only from their teachers but also from one another, we urge that whenever possible they not be separated by language. Grouping within the classroom for efficient learning is, of course, not the same thing as separation and is recognized as standard procedure.

Basic Plans for Scheduling

There are a variety of plans used in bilingual programs. We shall offer for consideration three variant programs, any one of which would, if selected, need to be adapted to local conditions.

Plan I

One plan, essentially that of the United Consolidated Public Schools of Laredo, where few if any children are completely monolingual, mixes English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children in the same class under the direction of a bilingual teacher. The school day is divided into two parts, one of which is used for instruction in English and the other for instruction in Spanish. A school system which can afford it or which has a Title I or Title III ESEA grant can use team teaching by having one English-speaking and one Spanish-speaking teacher for a single mixed class, each one to teach in his own language about half of the time.

Plan II

Another plan, that of the bilingual school in Miami, is designed for a community in which children enter school as monolinguals or very nearly. Here the children are separated by language in grades one and two and are brought together in grades three and following. A team of two teachers, one American and one Cuban, work closely together and are responsible for correlating the instruction in two sections. Each teaches only in his native language but to both English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children. In addition the Miami program uses a teacher aide to assist the two teachers especially in the art, music, and physical education activities.

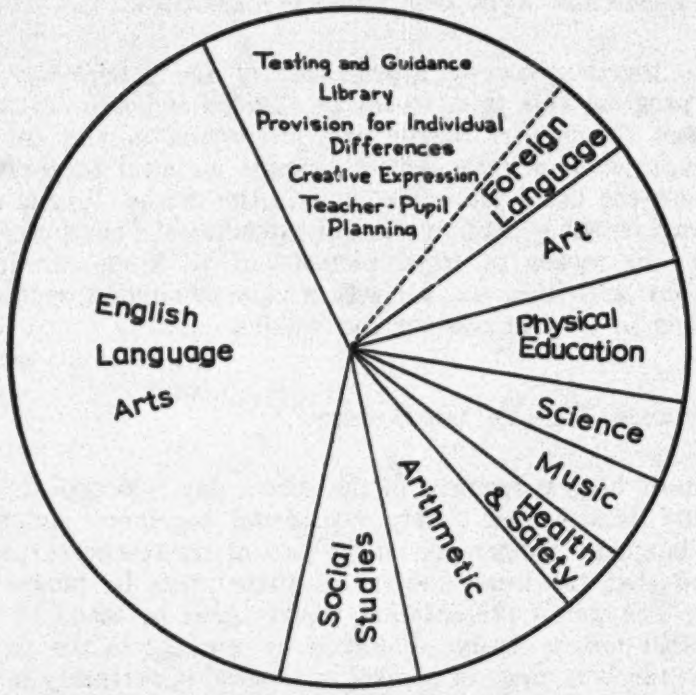
Plan III

In schools in which one hundred percent of the pupils are Spanish-speaking it might be appropriate, in order to make the children feel at home, to begin by doing, say, three-quarters of the instruction in Spanish and one-quarter in English, then gradually to equalize instruction in the two languages, and finally — perhaps in grades five and six — to do about three-quarters of the teaching in English and one-quarter in Spanish.

Course Content and Procedures

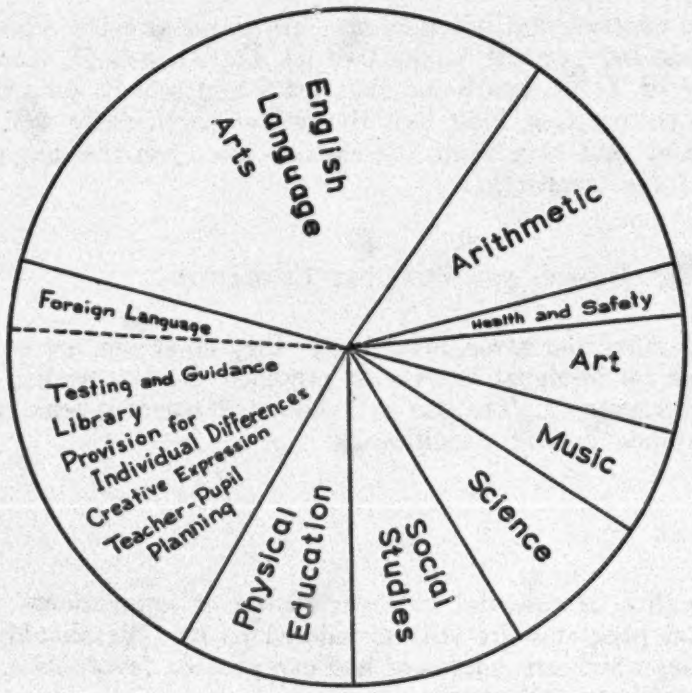
Here we would merely recommend the adaptation to the bilingual program of the best practices currently used in monolingual programs. The content of the elementary school program cannot vary greatly from state to state. As an example only we have used the graphic charts on pages 76 and 77 of the Texas Education Agency Bulletin Number 617, entitled *Principles and Standards for Accrediting Elementary and Secondary Schools and Description of Approved Program Grades 1-6.*

PRIMARY GRADES MINIMUM: 25 HRS. PER WEEK



This chart shows graphically the minimum amount of time allotted to each of the areas in the elementary curriculum. Note the unscheduled block of time which permits flexibility in planning according to the needs of the local school.

INTERMEDIATE GRADES
MINIMUM: 30 HRS. PER WEEK



This chart shows graphically the minimum amount of time allotted to each of the areas in the elementary curriculum. Note the unscheduled block of time which permits flexibility in planning according to the needs of the local school.

English Language Arts and Foreign Language

These together occupy nearly half of the school day. In the bilingual program this time would be divided between instruction in and through the mother tongue and instruction in and through the second language in a ratio which depends on local conditions. One would follow the usual procedure, first in the mother tongue and then in the second language, namely, that of extending the children's personal experiences by means of trips, pictures of all kinds, music, dance, games, books, activities, etc., all with a view to building reading readiness, leading in turn to reading and writing.

Social Studies, Health and Safety

The next biggest segment of the school day is occupied by Social Studies and Health and Safety considered together. Assuming the necessary language competence on the part of the teacher(s), we would recommend that the usual content of these areas be taught in both languages. The initial presentation would again be made in the children's mother tongue, to be reinforced by teaching in the second language. The teachers have, of course, an unusual opportunity in teaching social studies to present the two cultures in contact in such a way as to build mutual respect and understanding.

Arithmetic and Science

In an experimental bilingual program in ten selected schools of the San Antonio Independent School District, Dr. Thomas D. Horn, of The University of Texas, has found that math and science concepts, being relatively culture free, have lent themselves particularly well to bilingual teaching, but once again success depends upon the language competence of the teacher(s).

Art, Music, Dance, and Physical Education

These curricular areas, involving as they do action, are particularly appropriate for bilingual instruction provided the teacher has adequate language competence. The use of a bilingual teaching team would, of course, provide perfect conditions.

Evaluation

Evaluation is essential in experimental or innovational programs as bilingual programs are still considered to be. We should like, for communities which are interested and can provide favorable conditions, to recommend the following points:

1) That they begin with a small pilot program.

2) That objectives be carefully defined in advance.

3) That the program be carefully designed as an experiment, that is, that bilingual instruction be compared with monolingual instruction, all other factors being kept constant.

4) That evaluative instruments and procedures be determined in advance and adhered to.

5) That a competent outsider be engaged to make an objective evaluation and to write a report.

6) That the results, if significant, be published and disseminated widely.

7) That highly competent and dedicated teachers be used.

Teachers and Materials

These have often been mentioned as the chief lacks of bilingual programs. The Committee on Teacher Recruitment and Preparation, the chairman of which is Professor Ray Past, of The University of Texas at El Paso, has prepared recommendations on the first of these, and Mr. Víctor Cruz-Aedo of our Committee has prepared a report on the latter.

Conclusion

The guidelines presented here, though tentative, propose that schools in bilingual areas should give instruction in both the mother tongue and the second language of the children. The subjects of the curriculum remain the same but are adapted for the bilingual. As regards content, all courses, but particularly the social sciences and the language arts, should develop the bilinguality of the student by providing ample experience and language practice and varied cultural material and insight. The language goal is the creation of a balanced coordinate bilingual. A curriculum for the bilingual requires a teacher who is bilingually competent. It is imperative to have continuous experimentation in order to refine the guidelines here presented. In all cases flexibility is important. Finally, though one goal of the curriculum is a coordinate bilingual, it should be pointed out that he will live as a citizen of the United States.

Report III

RECRUITMENT AND PREPARATION OF BILINGUAL TEACHERS

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HENRY W. PASCUAL
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Bilingualism: From The Viewpoint of Recruitment And Preparation of Bilingual Teachers

Summary of Report

There is a need for "retooling" in the linguistically and culturally impoverished bilingual areas of New Mexico. In this situation the four skills of understanding may be sharpened if the teacher understands: (1) the nature of language; (2) the nature and kinds of interference from one language to another; (3) thought processes and language acquisition; (4) language and its relation to concept development; (5) phonology, morphology, and syntax; (6) methods and techniques of language instruction; (7) materials for language instruction.

Awareness of anthropology and sociology are an integral part of the needed conversion of teachers for bilinguals.

Lack of understanding and being understood all too often causes the child to reject not only the teacher but the culture that she represents. When the underprivileged learner has no basis of experience, he has no basis for transfer learning in cultural areas such as foods, animals, occupations and even knowledge of the community.

The teacher of English as a second language must be prepared to communicate interculturally as well as linguistically if he is to penetrate the "real world" from which the Mexican-American comes. A dictionary is not enough to translate feelings nor to provide "equivalents" when there are none in the underprivileged background (*i. e.* the use of a doll house to teach about the house and its furnishings is as foreign as the words are to the child who knows no such appliances and whose rooms are too crowded to be set aside for the sole purpose of sleeping, eating, cooking, etc.)

It is understandable that the child would use "loan-words" from the dominant Anglo-American culture. How, then, may the teacher of culturally impoverished pupils broaden her students' horizons to include experience with American culture and at the same time increase the pupils' pride in their own rich heritage? Objects familiar to the pupils and field trips will pave the way for expansion of cultural contexts that are common to the Anglo-American. A knowledge of Spanish is the best key to the culture of Mexican-American pupils because it unlocks a noble background through the door of literature.

In order to truly appreciate the transformation of a unilingual group to a bilingual class, the student-teacher should experience the entire scholastic year. In order to bring about a transformation from student-teacher to teacher, the cooperating teacher must assume nothing except that traditions must give way to startling awareness that the child does not even realize that English is not a continuation of Spanish! When the joy of having two sets of languages diversifies itself into translation and finally dissipates itself then the learning process moves into the area of language concepts.

The student-teacher learns to control sounds and structures through patterns and drills in order to transmit ideas. Techniques become

tangible tools to transport ideas that both student and teacher understand. Then, after observation and discussion, the student-teacher steps up to the position of teacher in much the same way as those whom she will teach and the metamorphosis is complete.

The unprecedented influx of Cubans into Florida's Dade County Public Schools since 1959 has necessitated an unprecedented curriculum and effected a program for a faculty formerly untrained in the handling of bilingual problems.

A shift to practical teacher workshops in small grade-level groups has helped supplement teacher preparation in a second language. These grade-level groups evolved from previous workshops and in-service efforts and have proven to be the best medium for application of techniques necessary in day-by-day second language problems.

Teachers who are already effective do adapt and become competent second language teachers. It is felt, however, that the universities could be of greater service to the bilingual communities by affording student-teachers the badly needed supervised field experience in second language capacities. Without that experience neither the teacher of the second language nor the teacher of the vernacular can realize his full potential in the perplexing challenge that awaits him in the bilingual classroom.

The difficult job of recruitment of able teachers is equaled only by the challenge of getting those teachers to stay on the job in slum areas. One who is not prepared for such a position could hardly reap satisfaction from it. And, what of the child? He, the teacher, the parent and the community would benefit from a workable application of sociology, psychology and motivation of deprived children. In fact, a minimum of twelve and preferably eighteen semseter hours of college credit in these areas is suggested for the prospective teacher.

Courses in Mexican, Southwest and/or Latin American History would be invaluable to a teacher of disadvantaged Spanish-speaking youth as would be the study of the language itself. From the cultural and literary standpoint, as well as from the experience of learning a second language, two years of Spanish is strongly suggested.

"Teaching English as a Foreign Language" and "Structure of the English Language" should be required of the prospective second language teacher, as should the separate reading course "Teaching of Reading to Bilingual Pupils."

The final touch, however, is not a formal class but the "feel" for the person, the motivation of the teacher as a preface to the motivation of the pupil.

The Development of Language Skills For Bilinguals — Need For Retooling

HENRY W. PASCUAL

It is not uncommon in many school districts in New Mexico for first graders to begin school with a wide range of language experience. In some districts, where Spanish is the home language of 90 to 100 percent of the school children, the classroom may be the first place where English is heard and spoken consistently as a means of communication. In others, the children come to school with a limited amount of language, imperfectly learned, which allows them to communicate only their most pressing needs. In general, the bilingual child may be characterized by a language poverty that is manifested by the general use of gestures and body movements instead of words, or by withdrawal from activities where language would play a leading role. Given the language poverty of these children, both experimental as well as conceptual, it is the duty of the teacher to attack the problem of teaching the oral skills. But in a well-planned language program, the development of oral skills will be closely tied to and be an integral part of a program for teaching reading and writing.

Given the existing language problems of bilingual children, what preparation must the teacher have to enable her to develop the four skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing? The following appear to be of utmost importance:

1. THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE. In order to impart language skills, especially the two fundamental skills of speaking and understanding, it is imperative that the teacher understand the nature of language and the way it functions in our society. A superficial knowledge of the system of language is not sufficient. The teacher must know also the cultural implications built into the system that is language.

2. THE NATURE AND KINDS OF INTERFERENCE FROM ONE LANGUAGE TO ANOTHER. In order to diagnose and solve learning problems related to language, the teacher should be aware of the type of interference which the learner's native language will have in learning English. Interference may be phonological, syntactical, and cultural.

3. THOUGHT PROCESSES AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION. What goes on in the mind — the neurological and muscular reactions to audio and visual stimuli in relation to language learning — must be understood by the teacher. Teachers need to understand that speaking involves the development of motor skills and that these are learned through continued practice.

4. LANGUAGE AND ITS RELATION TO CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT. Teachers of young children are much concerned about the development of concepts. They must expand or build upon already acquired concepts as well as teach new ones. The problem of developing

language skills, along with concepts, is an ever-present one. It is imperative that teachers understand the relation of language acquisition and concept development in order to integrate both learnings in the classroom experience.

5. PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY, AND SYNTAX. The great majority of elementary teachers have not had specific training in these areas of language. In order to teach bilingual children effectively, teachers must understand all aspects of language structure, and especially, they need training in phonology. The training should go beyond phonetics and deal with a comprehensive description of the English language.

6. METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION. Traditionally, the elementary teacher receives training for the teaching of reading, writing, and spelling. Her training is designed to impart these skills to children whose native language is English. Therefore, when she must teach the bilingual child, she finds that she must employ other methods for the teaching of language. It is, therefore, important to train elementary teachers to use sound methods and techniques for the teaching of language, especially for the teaching of oral skills. This should include the use of electro-mechanical and audio-visual aids.

7. MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION. Teachers must examine critically the materials to be used for teaching the language arts to bilingual children. If the fundamental skills are to be taught to these children, the materials to be used must be designed to meet these specific objectives of language instruction. The findings of modern linguistic science and sound pedagogical approaches must be applied in the development of the materials. In selecting materials for bilingual children, teachers must beware of texts that claim to teach pattern sentences and special vocabulary, and texts that claim to employ a "linguistic method." Many of these materials are fragmentary in nature. They do not offer a cohesive body of material with an integrated approach. Since the correct use of oral language and the progressive development of reading and writing skills are of paramount importance for success in school, a systematic and scientific approach must be used to impart these skills. Materials used with bilingual children must reflect this thinking. The following could be used as guidelines for determining the suitability of texts to be used *:

   a. Materials should provide suggestions in the teacher's manual for teaching oral skills.

   b. The oral language to be taught is the same used in reading, writing, and spelling.

   c. Language is taught by structures or patterns with controlled vocabulary and syntax.

* Teacher's Manuals — *Miami Linguistic Readers*, D. C. Heath & Company

d. The presentation of sound-symbol correspondence in reading materials should be in terms of spelling patterns and should be based on that body of language that has been mastered orally.

e. Content of materials should appeal to children and be as nearly as possible culture free, both in terms of the dominant as well as the learner's culture.

Apart from the specifics of language — that is, the areas of language study which should be included in the preparation of teachers who will deal with bilingual children — there are two related areas that have not received much attention and which bear upon the effectiveness of the teacher in the classroom. These are the study of cultural anthropology and sociology. Of these, cultural anthropology is most relevant.

The casual observer of life in the Southwest would probably label this region as having three distinct cultures. We know these as Indian, Spanish, and Anglo. If we look closely at the so-called Spanish culture, we discover that the label does not fit, for the way of life of the Spanish-speaking citizens of the Southwest is far removed from that of any Latin-American or continental Spanish region. True, there are traces of Mexican folkways, and in some areas of Northern New Mexico there have been preserved folk dramas, a few customs, and a Spanish dialect little modified by the forces of change affecting the parent country, but much modified by the English language. What has evolved is a way of life and a vernacular that can be labeled as typical of the area. This way of life has been brought by Spanish, Mexican, Indian, and Anglo-Saxon cultural patterns. Thus, it is evident that in order for the teacher to be effective in the classroom she needs to have a sound background and understanding of the cultural orientation of the children she is going to teach.

In the field of sociology, teachers should have information regarding areas of social control, race relations, and social and economic problems.

In general, the bilingual child is found in a great variety of environments. Many are urban children of low socio-economic status. Others are rural children with limited social contacts. Their English language experience may vary from none to complete fluency. Unfortunately, no general effort is being made towards literacy in the Spanish language, and in most instances the adult bilingual population is not literate in the mother tongue. All these factors contribute to the general language and cultural poverty in which the bilingual child lives.

These facts have been recognized by teachers, sociologists, linguists, and government officials for many years. Much work has been done and continues to be done to ameliorate the situation. It is now time to look at the objectives of teacher preparation and include these areas in the programs for curriculum for teacher education. The problems will not be solved unless teachers have the expertise needed.

Intercultural Problems and the Teacher of English As A Second Language

JOHN M. SHARP

It is essential that the teacher of English as a second language to Mexican-American grade school pupils be well prepared to meet not only the linguistic aspects of her task, but also the basic problems of intercultural communication posed by these children. However well versed she may be in teaching methods, she is not likely to establish a real rapport with her pupils unless she is able to understand the cultural "world" they bring with them to the first grade: an Hispanic world whose concepts, value-judgments and human relationships the child has learned, perceives and feels through the Spanish language.

Edward Sapir stated that our image of the world in which we live is strongly conditioned by the "slant" our native tongue gives to our view of reality:

> Human beings do not live in the objective world alone, nor alone in the world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium of expression of that society. It is quite an illusion to imagine that one adjusts to reality essentially without the use of language and that language is merely an incidental means of solving specific problems of communication or reflection. The fact of the matter is that the "real world" is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group. . . . We see and hear and otherwise experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation. [1]

It is clear, accordingly, that the teacher of middle-class, Anglo-American background will not understand her Spanish-speaking, Mexican-American pupils, nor be understood by them, unless she grasps the "choices of interpretation" of the "real world" to which the language habits of their community predispose them. She must be able to interpret correctly the *cultural content* of what her students say to her and thoroughly take into account their cultural "world" in what she says to them.

Even simple dictionary "equivalents" in Spanish and English may represent culturally very different realities. *Casa* means house, the dictionary tells us, but what different realities the word *casa* would suggest to a child from Juarez's *Barrio Colorado* and the word *house* to an El Paso youngster from Kern Place! *Dad* translates the Spanish *papá;* but the U. S. child's mental image of good old Dad who ties on an apron and does the dinner dishes has little in common with the Hispanic youngster's concept of *papá* as a stern and *macho* authoritarian who rules the household with an iron hand. Ortega y Gasset has commented on the lack of cultural equivalence of words that are supposed to "mean the same thing":

> . . . . it is utopian to believe that two words belonging to two languages and that the dictionary gives us as translations of one another refer to exactly the same objects. Since the languages were formed in different landscapes and in view of different experiences, their lack of correspondence is natural It is false, for example, to suppose that Spanish terms *bosque* the same thing as German calls *wald*, and yet the dictionary tells us that *wald* means *bosque*.[2]

How important it is for the grade school teacher of English as a second language to be prepared to face this problem has been ably expressed by Professor Chester C. Christian Jr., of the University of Texas, in his paper, "The Acculturation of the Bilingual Child":

> The meanings which have been given him (*i.e.*, the bilingual child) in one culture do not exist in other cultures, and therefore cannot be replaced. . . . And teachers who do not know these meanings usually find the response of the pupil who knows no others baffling, annoying and exasperating. Then, when the child begins to discover that the teacher does not understand, he develops negative reactions not only to the teacher but to the educational process, and finally to the entire culture and language which the teacher represents. Or, conversely, he may decide that his parents have provided him with an inferior world, and subsequently attempt to reject entirely what they have provided for him as a cultural base upon which to build a meaningful life. . . . It is a personal tragedy, and there is much evidence to indicate that it is a social tragedy, when an adult resents or even despises the language and culture of his childhood.[3]

But the Hispanic culture of the Mexican-American grade school child is but one of the two major cultural problem areas with which the teacher of English as a second language must be equipped to cope. She must also take into account that many Mexican-American youngsters are products of a "culture of poverty." Most of the pupils of a number of South El Paso elementary schools, for example, live in the slums and are conditioned by poverty in the same way as other economically underprivileged groups of whatever ethnic origin. Obviously, such children live in a different world and have led lives very different from those of middle-class youngsters of the same community.

A few examples should suffice to illustrate these important differences and the necessary bearing they have upon the task of teachers of English as a second language in schools located in underprivileged areas. Large families live crowded into one or two rooms in a tenement. The concept of rooms in a house being set aside for some one particular purpose — sleeping, eating, cooking, receiving friends, etc. — is unfamiliar to the children of such families. They are likely to be puzzled by the teacher who brings a large doll house to class and uses it as a basis for an English lesson on the house and its furnishings. Many appliances and comforts common to middle-class households — private baths, freezers, high-fi sets — are so unfamiliar to Mexican-American

slum children that the latter know neither in Spanish nor in English what they are called. (An interesting linguistic result of this is the fact that when the under-privileged Mexican-American does adopt a term for such equipment, he usually takes an English loan-word, since such comforts are products of the dominant English-speaking majority.)

In contrast to the middle-class Anglo-American child's parents, the father and mother of the Mexican-American pupil are usually blue-collar workers — factory laborers, servants, menials. Father goes to work in overalls not a coat and tie. Personal grooming is less emphasized than in middle-class families, in which the breadwinner must make "a good impression" on customers, clients and business associates.

The underprivileged child's life experience in general is more limited than that of his more affluent peers. There is less variety in his diet: many items of food familiar to Anglo-American first graders are entirely unknown to Mexican-American pupils from poverty zones. The slum child is often ignorant of his own community outside his own district. The writer recalls having read once in the Chicago press that many teenagers in the Polish ghetto, a scant three miles from the center of the city, had never visited The Loop! If the underprivileged child's first-hand acquaintance with his own town is scanty, his knowledge of the countryside is sure to be even less. Farm life and farm animals may well be as exotic to him as the rare beasts of Africa and Asia are to a middle-class grade school student.

Now, most textbooks and other materials for the elementary grades are prepared on the basis of the usual environment and experiences of the average middle-class Anglo-American child. Much of this material, as can be seen from the foregoing examples, requires a great deal of selection and adaptation for effective use in teaching underprivileged Mexican-American bilinguals. To do an adequate job, the teacher of such groups clearly needs special cultural training in addition to work in linguistics, methodology, etc.

First of all, she obviously requires an adequate command of spoken Spanish. The linguistic reasons for this have been abundantly discussed elsewhere and do not fall within the scope of this paper; but in addition to these factors, there are important cultural advantages to be gained in the teacher's knowing Spanish. She must, as has been said, have a good grasp of the Hispanic system of values and social pattern. In the writer's opinion, there is no better way to gain an insight into how a culture "sees" the world than to acquire a good working knowledge of the language which is its vehicle.

Second, the teacher of English as a second language to Latin-American children should have thorough and well organized training in Hispanic culture. Such training should include readings in Latin-American literature (if necessary, in translation) that will reveal to the prospective teacher the basic value-system of the Latin American; and work in sociology with emphasis on Latin-American society and on the culture of poverty. Not of least importance in the preparation of the teacher to understand her pupils' cultural world is the acquisition of a knowledge of some of the great achievements of the Hispanic peoples: for it is essential that she teach her students to take pride in their noble

heritage. Professor Christian explains eloquently how necessary this is to the development of their potentialities:

> We often fail to realize that those who speak a language other than English are thereby psychologically and culturally prepared to enter a realm of thought, feeling, imagination which is different from that available to them in English, but which is not therefore less important to their development. Among the Spanish-speaking, for example, this preparation might enable them to enter this world through the works of Cervantes in a much more real and intimate sense than they will ever be able to do through the works of Shakespeare. Since it is this world which releases the creative potentialities of our men and women of genius, it may be that by cutting off their development toward entry into it by any door other than English, we are destroying whatever significant contributions to it that a bilingual might potentially make.[4]

In summary, the teacher of English as a second language to economically underprivileged Latin-American pupils should initially base her lessons upon materials, realia and cultural contexts familiar to her charges. She should, however, in the course of the school year seek to *expand* her students' cultural world by the judicious use of actual objects brought into the classroom, pictures, films and field trips. This broadening of the pupils' horizons should not be one-sided: it should include, on the one hand, an increased understanding of the dominant Anglo-American culture of the United States and, on the other, a richer and more meaningful awareness of the positive values of the Mexican-American's own Hispanic heritage.

1. Edward Sapir, quoted by Benjamin B. Whorf in the latter's "The Relation of Habitual Thought and Behavior in Language," *Language Thought and Reality* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.), p. 134.
2. José Ortega y Gasset, "Miseria y esplendor de la traducción," *El libro de las misiones* (Buenos Aires-México: Espasa-Calpe Argentina, 1945), p. 138.
3. Chester C. Christian, Jr., "The Acculturation of the Bilingual Child," a paper presented at the Conference for the Teacher of the Bilingual Child, University of Texas, June 8-10, 1964.
4. *Ibid.*

Some TESL Guidelines for Training Student Teachers

ELIZABETH K. ZABOROWSKI

After having been confronted with my first student-teacher for eight weeks last spring, I began, as an after-thought, to formulate a set of guidelines for the preparation of a student-teacher in a bilingual setting.

Even though my own experience is somewhat limited in teaching English as a second language, I would like to share the following observations and guidelines with those of you who might soon find yourselves in the same position.

To begin with, I feel that the student-teacher should start her apprenticeship in the fall, when the going is truly the roughest. By spring the rough edges are worn off and the routines are set. Only in the fall can a student-teacher fully understand the processes involved in transforming a monolingual group of boys and girls into a bilingual class.

Secondly, I would assume that the student-teacher knew little or nothing about the science of linguistics or the application of its findings to the teaching of English as a second language.

In some cases it will be necessary for the cooperating teacher to break down and replace many of the traditional anglo-oriented ideas which the student-teacher may bring with her from the college classroom. If the cooperating teacher finds such a course of action justifiable as well as necessary, she must then be willing and able to defend her proposed program when it comes under attack; for it most surely will come under attack, if the student-teacher has been steeped in the traditional ways of teaching the language arts.

When designing her program, I feel the cooperating teacher needs to decide through which areas of "enlightenment" she wishes to guide her student. The following three areas are those which I consider basic and necessary in the preparation of the student teacher of bilingual children:

The first area that needs to be explored is that of basic cultural understanding, the second concerns language concepts and the third involves teaching techniques.

One of the earliest tasks facing the cooperating teacher is that of providing the novice with an understanding of the problems which may arise in connection with the socio-economic and cultural background of the children in the class.

The student-teacher will need to be made aware of the fact that a child may be deficient in his native tongue as well as in English. If the child comes from an exceptionally large family, which almost all of my pupils do, perhaps no one has taken the time or patience to talk to him or to answer his questions in either Spanish or English. Consequently, he may have little or no vocabulary and even less concept of self. He may not know who he is in any language.

The child's lack of experience as well as his lack of language will prevent him from participating in those lively "Readiness" discussions so dear to the hearts of traditional first grade teachers.

The student-teacher will have to be shown how to provide both the experience and the accompanying language, before any discussions of this nature can take place.

Once the teacher has shown her student-teacher how to provide both the experience and the language necessary for expression and meaning, she can then go on to guide her student along other paths of understanding.

Another difficult idea for the student-teacher to grasp is that the unsophisticated monolingual beginner does not always realize that he is learning a "second" language. I have found that many of my pupils consider the words I am teaching them as somewhat of a continuation of Spanish. They speak to me in Spanish and cannot understand why I do not answer them.

However, there comes a time in each child's development, an almost magic moment, when he finds that he can convey the same thought with two completely different sets of words. He discovers that one set of words brings only puzzlement to the teacher's face, while the other set of words accomplishes his purpose, for the teacher understands and responds. I believe that it is at this precise moment of discovery that the child can be considered bilingual and not before.

From this moment on, many children become translators and descend upon their bewildered classmates, who are not yet blessed with this ability to extract meaning from strange new sounds. Using fluent and meaningful Spanish, the translators convey to their amigos what the teacher has just said in English.

When this translation system is no longer necessary, the teacher can then safely assume that her class is a bilingual one.

After the student-teacher has grasped these and whatever other specific understandings the cooperating teacher feels are necessary, she is then ready to go to the second area — the realm of language concepts.

In this realm, the biggest and most important task before the cooperating teacher is to isolate the basic thoughts and ideas behind each of the lessons she demonstrates for the student teacher.

She must be able to explain, in simple terms, what there is about language learning that makes TESL techniques effective. She must know why she is doing what she is doing, and she must be able to explain herself intelligently to her student-teacher. It is possible to be a good demonstration teacher and still fail to get ideas across to a young and inexperienced apprentice.

Once the cooperating teacher has convinced her student of the necessity of a certain degree of language proficiency preceding the introduction of reading and writing, she can then show her how to provide practice on a sequence of basic features of the English language which the child must master if he is to learn to understand, speak, read and write standard English.

It will be necessary for the student-teacher to learn to prepare lessons and materials that teach those sounds and structures which cause the most trouble for the non-English-speaking child. At the same

time this material must be interesting to the child and reflect the natural language forms of the child's speech. The material must also show control of grammatical structure as well as control of vocabulary.

The student-teacher must be cautioned repeatedly to check that each child has aural-oral control of the material he is expected to read. A child should never be asked to read something he cannot say.

The student-teacher must be made to realize that the focus of all these language arts activities is on the acquisition of patterns, and that the techniques to be used are those of drill.

This then leads into the third area of preparation — that of teaching techniques.

The student-teacher must constantly be led to explore the various methods of transporting theory into the realm of practice through language drills and games. Therefore, the cooperating teacher must demonstrate the intricacies of drill without allowing the student-teacher to assume that there is a "cookbook" approach to teaching English as a second language. The student must learn that, although there is no sure-fire recipe for second language learning, there are, however, time honored and proven techniques which are effective when applied to interesting and well-sequenced materials.

As a final phase of her program, the cooperating teacher should include a written observation sheet for the student-teacher to have before her during the initial observation period.

The observation sheet, for example, might state in simple language, the objectives to be met and give an outline of the specific skills which the cooperating teacher plans to elicit from the pupils during a particular lesson. The student-teacher would then have some idea of what responses to look for from both the demonstrating teacher and the pupils in the class.

Part of the sheet could allow space for the student-teacher to record her own thoughts, observations and questions.

Of course it would be necessary for the student-teacher and cooperating teacher to discuss the observation sheet, both before and after the lesson. The student-teacher should be allowed to duplicate the lesson only when the cooperating teacher is sure that her objectives and the theory behind them have been fully understood. It is necessary for the student-teacher to be completely aware of the reasoning behind what she will be asked to do. If she cannot comprehend this reasoning, she most likely is not yet ready to begin teaching. More observation and discussion, and perhaps selected readings from TESL publications would be indicated in a case like this.

Once the student-teacher has mastered the basic understandings, concepts and techniques of TESL, she should be ready to adapt these ways to her own particular teaching style and proceed to fulfill the requirements of her apprenticeship.

The Recruitment and Training of Teachers of Bilingual Students In Miami, Florida

PAUL W. BELL

Internal revolution and international politics were catalysts which forced educational innovation in the Dade County Public Schools. Shortly after the revolutionary forces of Fidel Castro seized power in Cuba on January 1, 1959, political refugees began to pour into Miami. For a period of approximately eighteen months, more than 250 refugee pupils per week entered Dade County schools. After that, the number gradually dropped to a mere trickle. During the past year, the number of newly arrived pupils has risen again to about 200 a month.

In terms of previous education, these pupils represent a cross-section of the pupil population of Cuba. In the beginning, a large number came from excellent private schools which are now closed, while others came from rural public schools which offered limited educational opportunities. Among the refugees, there are gifted pupils and not so gifted pupils; there are highly motivated pupils and indifferent pupils; there are the emotionally stable and the emotionally disturbed; there are the "culturally advantaged" and the "culturally disadvantaged." In most ways, the newly arrived refugee children are like any other large group of pupils. However, they differ from our typical pupils in one significant way. The majority knows little or no English.

A small number of non-English-speaking pupils can probably be found in any large urban school system. Miami, the nation's seventh largest system is no exception. We have always had some non-English-speaking pupils. However, when there were only a few of them in our school system, their needs could be easily ignored or perhaps not even recognized. But, almost overnight the school population in almost 40 of our typical North American schools became from 50% to 95% non-English-speaking. The needs of these pupils had to be met. This situation, with all its inherent problems of housing, of staffing and of curriculum development, was accepted as a unique educational challenge by the Dade County Public Schools.

In attempting to meet the special needs of the non-English-speaking pupil, the school system committed itself to the development of two areas of curriculum not previously offered. A program in English as a second language was initiated. It was designed to provide effective instruction *geared to developing each pupil's proficiency in English.* And, at the same time, programs in Spanish as a vernacular were developed to maintain and raise the pupil's level of literacy in his native language.

Obviously, one of the major problems which the school system faced was in the area of staffing these programs. The traditionally trained North American teacher was in no way prepared professionally to deal with the instructional challenges which the non-English-speaking pupil represented, and quite often the teacher was also unprepared emotionally to deal effectively with these children.

Teachers, trained in developing concepts, using problem-solving techniques, had to develop an understanding of the principles of language learning as habit formation and the ability to apply these in their classrooms. To be effective as English-as-a-second language teachers, they had to learn to distinguish language problems from academic problems, and be able to deal with both. Especially in the elementary school, a new breed of teachers was needed — hybrid-talented pedagogues, thoroughly familiar with the total curriculum, sensitive to the needs of children and yet skilled as language teachers. In other words, the need was for a teacher who is not just a "foreign language teacher," but who is a "second language teacher;" a "second language teacher" who can present the kind of instructional program which goes far beyond the usual objectives of foreign language teaching. Such a teacher is responsible for developing students who can function academically, socially and emotionally in a new language. To a large extent the student's entire future, both in school and out, depends on how well the teacher is able to achieve these educational objectives with his students.

With these considerations in mind, starting in November, 1961, in-service training courses were offered throughout the school year. Teachers were released from teaching responsibilities one afternoon each month to attend classes. Then, during the summer of 1962 and 1963, over 200 teachers participated in six-week workshops on the teaching of English as a second language. These were offered jointly by the Dade County Schools and the University of Miami. Participation in the workshop carried college credit in courses in linguistics and in methods of teaching English as a second language. As part of the methods course, the teachers conducted classes in English-SL for over 5,000 pupils involved in voluntary summer classes. For their participation, the teachers were paid a salary equal to that of other summer school teachers. The training program was very similar to an NDEA Institute.

During the 1965-1966 school year, a special course, Linguistics and the Teaching of Beginning Reading, was offered to teachers of non-English-speaking first and second grade pupils. The course was developed to deal with the special needs of children who must learn not only to speak a second language, but must also learn to read and write their second language before they become literate in their first.

This past summer another six-week workshop was offered to 100 English-SL teachers. The teachers spent the mornings teaching in the summer program for pupils and then for two hours each afternoon they met in workshop sections divided on a grade-level basis, primary, intermediate and secondary. The teachers were paid for their participation, but were not offered university credit. The focus of the workshop classes was less on abstract theory and more on practical application geared to students within a particular age range. This shift in focus from our previous workshops was the result of our evaluation of the earlier experiences in our own system and on an evaluation of various federally sponsored and locally sponsored efforts in other states.

It was the feeling of those of us responsible for planning the training program that the teachers would be more receptive to theory and

develop a better insight into their problems as language teachers, if theory were presented in terms which related directly to the teaching process. Formal course work in linguistics and related disciplines, while certainly highly desirable, if not imperative, in the training of language teachers, does not seem to be the best initial step in orienting classroom teachers who face the day-by-day problems of teaching non-English-speaking pupils and whose previous training has given them little or no preparation for the language teaching the situation demands.

Experience has shown us that the teachers who are already effective classroom teachers are the ones who become most effective in English-SL programs. As they develop new insights and learn to use new methods, many become highly skilled language teachers. The special training offered to these teachers takes advantage of the skills which they already have, and then leads them to a progressively higher level of professional competency. Their development as language teachers leads them to a new and expanded self-image.

A program of in-service training for teachers of non-English-speaking students could very well start with a general methods workshop. This initial introduction should then lead to opportunities for more advanced specialized study in the field of language teaching.

Our problem in Miami would be considerably lessened if the teacher training institutions in the Miami area provided pre-service training of prospective teachers of bilinguals. There is a need for new teachers with training as second language teachers. These should be teachers who have received training in the traditional areas appropriate for the level on which they expect to teach, and who have also had appropriate courses and supervised field experience in language teaching. The potential for developing teachers with adequate specialization in second language teaching is much greater with the prospective teacher in the university that it is with the teacher who is already "in-service."

To meet the needs of the bilingual child in his vernacular, a different kind of teacher is required. To teach Spanish to our native speakers of Spanish we have tried to recruit native Spanish-speaking teachers who could be trained in a language-arts approach to native language teaching. Teachers who received their own education in Spanish and who have received training in modern pedogogical practices seem best able to provide for the language growth of Spanish speakers in their native language. Dade County is fortunate in having large numbers of teachers with these qualifications. It would be hard to conceive of an effective program in Spanish as a vernacular which could operate effectively without native speakers of Spanish educated in Spanish.

To summarize, it is my feeling that two distinct types of teachers are needed to serve bilingual pupils. To develop the English part of the curriculum, we need teachers who are:

1) competent, professionally-trained teachers,

2) native speakers of English or who possess near-native proficiency,

3) trained in the traditional areas appropriate for teaching on elementary and secondary levels, and also trained in the principles of foreign language teaching.

To meet the vernacular needs of the bilingual pupil, we need teachers who are:

1) competent, professionally-trained teachers

2) native speakers of Spanish or who possess near-native proficiency,

3) educated in Spanish and trained in language arts teaching.

In Miami we have been fortunate in having been able to develop a nucleus of teachers who meet these standards. But it is only a nucleus and it is only a beginning. We have only taken the first step toward an adequate program of recruiting and training teachers for bilingual pupils.

Preparation of Teachers of Disadvantaged

MARION CLINE, JR.

Harry Rivlin, Dean of Teacher Education at the University of New York, says, "Teaching differs from every other profession in that it is the only one in which the most complex and difficult problems are assigned to the least experienced and least expert practitioners."

There is a more important problem than mere recruitment. Assignment to a slum school portends certain difficulties which require special training. Yet, unlike the social worker who is trained in urban society, teachers often lack knowledge of the slum area (Chamizal) which might enable them to adapt the instruction to the particular group and at the same time get a certain degree of satisfaction from a job well done. Perhaps satisfaction would increase the length of tenure in such schools.

Institutions educating students for specific positions must give more than cursory attention to the tasks, difficulties and procedures which will enable the new teacher in the poor neighborhood to at least have an even chance for success. Unless one is prepared for a position in a slum school, each day may end in emotional exhaustion or actual chaos. In addition to the sufferings of the teacher, what happpens to the children in such situations? Perhaps the reason for low achievement by minority group children may be the low expectation of their capacity to learn, held by culturally unsophisticated teachers. Many opportunities for better teaching are forfeited because of our lack of understanding of the Mexican-American customs, mores, and values that govern behavior in deprived areas. An understanding of the mechanisms through which the culturally disadvantaged school child can be influenced and motivated are long overdue. Could the peer relationship be used in discipline?

Perhaps we ought to utilize the educational strengths derived from the extended family and move toward home-family and "barrio" education. The real causes underlying academic difficulty need to be assessed and remediation undertaken by qualified teachers. The manner and language for communication with the parents needs a certain amount of implementation in our teacher preparation courses. Most prospective teachers need and desire training in these areas but seldom will the college curriculum provide for or encourage it.

If the future teacher in any academic major were to receive some work in sociology, in psychology and motivation of deprived children, and in culture patterns of the minority group personality (perhaps through a conscientious effort to provide for the offering or counseling toward enrolling in courses offering such information) the profession would certainly profit. More emphasis on human development and its inter-relatedness to the teaching of language and reading and some practical work in applying this knowledge in the slums would improve the instruction, pupils' progress, home-school relationship and the teachers' morale.

In effect, what I am suggesting is the opportunity for the prospec-

tive teacher to be able to pursue a source of study similar to that being given in our "Prospective Teacher Fellowship Program" and "Experienced Teacher Fellowship Program" in a cross or inter-disciplinary preparatory program.

To insure a better understanding of the enclave community in which the teacher will be working he should have a minimum of twelve and preferably eighteen semester hours in the field of sociology. In sociology, the well-trained teacher of the disadvantaged should have courses in "Minority Groups," "Border Sociology," "Latin-American Culture," "Juvenile Delinquency," and "Home and Family" in addition to the general sociological coverage required of all liberal arts candidates.

It seems that a number of courses in history, in addition to Texas History and Government, woud be invaluable to a teacher of disadvantaged Spanish-speaking youth. Certainly Mexican and/or Latin-American History along with a History of the Southwest would be more worthwhile to these teachers' preparation than many other courses they are now taking simply because they are offered in sequence at good hours.

In order to understand better the culture in which he will be working, prospective teachers should have an understanding of one of the strong attributes of the culture, its language. Two years of Spanish should prove useful not only for a better understanding of the culture and child and family of the culturally disadvantaged Hispanos; but it could prove valuable indirectly concerning the difficulties encountered while learning a second language.

Research indicates that one of the most difficult things to teach the members of the minority group is the new language. Two courses in English therefore are musts: Teaching English as a Foreign Language and The Structure of the English Language. In addition one or more courses in the literature of the Latin American culture should prove enlightening. It is doubtful that any of you can name even one author from "New Spain."

In conjunction with the ESL courses, one should have a separate reading course concerned with the "Teaching of Reading to Bilingual Pupils." Such a course is needed along with the regular courses in the presentation of Language Arts Development and Literature for Children.

Specific work in the psychology of learning and suggested ways of motivating the deprived child to want to learn, need more attention. All the courses necessary for certification, and especially the elementary curriculum could and should be tailored to the needs of teachers of the area.

Actual observations and practice with the slum child in his own little world could well be the deciding factor in our producing merely a teacher or a well-informed and orientated teacher with a "feel" for the disadvantaged child. Such a teacher will reap dividends for all of us. As Emerson said, "The secret of education lies in respecting the pupil."